

钱学森

# 手稿

MANUSCRIPTS OF  
H. S. TSUNG  
1938-1955

山西教育出版社

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H. S. TSIEH 1938-1955



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谨以此书  
献给我国著名科学家  
钱学森同志





钱学森



1991 年国务院、中央军委授予钱学森“杰出贡献科学家”荣誉称号



江泽民主席在授予钱学森荣誉称号仪式上致辞,高度评价了钱学森对我国科技事业作出的贡献(1991年)



钱学森和夫人蒋英在授予荣誉称号的仪式上(1991年)



授予荣誉称号仪式后，江泽民主席向钱学森同志热烈祝贺（1991年）



1938 年, 钱学森在美国从事应用力学研究。

1939 年, 钱学森在美国加州理工学院获航空、数学博士学位



1943 年, 钱学森和几位中国研究生在帕萨迪那 (Pasadena) 与周培源夫妇合影



1949 年,钱学森在  
加州理工学院授课



钱学森在加州理工学院给研究生讲课:关于远程商用喷气飞机作  
洲际飞行的问题,时间大约是 1941 年或 1942 年



1949年10月27日，重返加州理工学院担任喷气推进中心主任的钱学森与同事在办公室留影，右一为F·马勃(F. Marble)



1949年，钱学森在加州理工学院任教，左一为年轻时的F·马勃(F. Marble)





1944年12月,担任火箭研究理论组组长的钱学森在美军试验基地(Cleech Spring)参加美军最初的火箭“列兵A”(Private A)发射的试验工作(右二为钱学森)



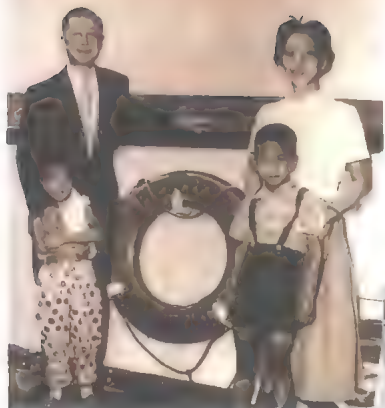
1949年4-5月间,第二次世界大战结束前夕,钱学森随冯·卡门率领的科学考察团赴德国考察航空与火箭研究的发展情况,这是钱学森(中)和他的老师冯·卡门(右)在德国哥廷根会见空气动力学家L·普朗特(L. Prandtl)。普朗特曾是冯·卡门的老师,这是师生三代在战后会见的一个有意义的时刻



钱学森的老师 T. von Kármán 教授

钱学森和几位  
亚裔同事与冯·卡  
门及其妹妹在冯·  
卡门家中合影。前  
左下蹲者是钱学  
森，前右下蹲者为  
谈家桢（时间约为  
1938 年）。





1955 年,钱学森一家乘  
克莱夫兰总统号(President  
Cleveland)轮船回国

1950 年,钱  
学森在加州理工  
学院古根海姆航  
空实验室(右二  
为F. Marble)





1980年国际技术与技术交流大会授予钱学森“小罗克韦尔奖章”和“世界级科学与工程名人”“国际理工研究协会成员”称号。这是钱学森在国内接受奖章和荣誉证书时留影。



耄耋之年的钱学森仍在孜孜不倦地探索科学技术的前沿发展



钱学森夫妇和 F. Marble 夫妇合影(1991 年)



钱学森在看F. Marble 赠送给他的近期论文,右一为郑哲敏院士,右二为庄逢甘院士(1991年)



钱学森夫人蒋英和F. Marble 夫人 Ora Lee 见面,格外高兴(1991年)



1996年,钱学森会见从美国来访的老友F. Marble教授,并  
交谈学术问题



1996年,钱学森和F. Marble教授亲切交谈



1996年,国防科工委科技委秘书长王寿云研究员和薛明伦(左二)在钱学森手稿交接仪式上和I. Marble夫妇合影



钱学森手稿交接仪式后,王寿云和薛明伦向I. Marble教授深表谢意(1996年)





1996年12月11日，江泽民主席看望88岁高龄的钱学森，并亲切交谈。



1999年9月18日中共中央、国务院、中央军委授予钱学森“两弹一星功勋奖章”这是授奖大会后，全国政协副主席、著名核物理学家朱光亚（左二），中央军委委员、总装备部部长曹刚川上将（右一），总装备部政委李继耐上将（左一）在钱学森家，将“两弹一星功勋奖章”及获奖证书呈交钱老（右二是钱老的夫人、著名声乐家蒋英教授）



本书展出的手稿（包括部分打字稿）选自钱学森 1938—1955 年在美国从事教学和科研活动时的大量原始资料。

由钱学森在美国加州理工学院同事和挚友 Frank E. Marble（弗朗克·马勃）教授精心收集和长期负责保管的手稿共有 15000 余页，涉及的内容十分广泛，其中：有已发表或未发表论文的手稿、图表、公式推导、演算稿、数据列表等；有多种内部报告的手稿；有对多个科学问题的分析与计算；有风洞设计的手稿、图表等；有与博士论文导师、后来的合作者与领导人 Theodore von Kármán（Th. 冯·卡门）及与其他科学家的通信；有听课和自学的笔记；有就某些专题所收集的资料汇总及分析；有给他所指导的研究生的便笺等等。限于篇幅，本书只选择了其中极少一部分。钱学森那个时期公开发表的论文已由科学出版社于 1991 年编辑成册出版发行。手稿不同于这些论文。论文是科研成果的集中表现，而手稿则反映作者创造性探索的动态过程。前者的读者对象主要是相关专业的科技专家，其中部分内容因其对科学技术发展的重要作用而被永久地载入科学技术的文库；后者因其能生动地表现一位杰出科学家的治学精神和治学态度而为更广泛的读者所关注，特别是对中青年科学家和青少年有极好的教育作用。另外，作为我国一位杰出科学家的工作记录和中华民族优秀文化遗产的一部分，这些材料还有很高的收藏价值。这就是出版这本手稿选编的主要目的。

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因为手稿全部是用英文写的，为了帮助读者更好地理解《选编》的内容，谨就我们所知，在这甲提供一些有关的历史背景情况。

本世纪上半叶是科学和工程走向密切结合的时代，从而形成了技术科学这样一个中间层次的学科，其中最具有代表性的一个范例，就是以技术科学为指导把航空工业建立在科学理论的可靠基础上，使飞机设计在空气动力学理论的指导下，突破了“声障”和“热障”，实现了高速飞行，同时发展了火箭技术，开创了航天事业的新时代。当时美国的加州理工学院古根海姆（Guggenheim）航空实验室内（GALCIT）就处于推动这项进步的前沿，而它的领导人正是钱学森的老师、后来成为密切合作者的著名学者 Theodore von

Kármán (冯·卡门) 年轻的钱学森 1934 年从上海交通大学机械系铁道机械工程专业毕业，有志于从事航空工程。在考取清华大学公费留美后，1935 年来到美国麻省理工学院，次年转学到加州理工学院航空系，从师于 von Kármán。钱学森在 1939 结束博士论文后，除去一个短时期外，他的教学和科研工作基本上都是在加州理工学院进行的。

天资聪慧、受过严格家庭和学校教育、勤奋好学、勇于开拓的钱学森到加州理工学院不久，便显示出令人瞩目的才华。从他在美国 20 年的论著看，他始终如一地以推动航空和航天技术的发展为目标，努力探索处于科学与技术最前沿的问题。早在 1937 年，在从事博士论文研究的同时，他就参加了由同学 Frank Malina (弗朗克·马林纳) 组织、得到 von Kármán 支持的火箭技术研究小组，从此，开始了他与火箭和航天技术的不解之缘。如果说他的早期研究主要是针对阻碍当时航空、航天技术发展的一些关键力学问题，那么后来，他的视野更加广泛、前瞻性更强，着眼点已不限于个别问题，而是开辟新的学科前沿领域，以推动航空、航天技术整体与长远的发展了。与此同时，他的学科领域也已不限于应用力学，而是他所倡导的更为广阔得多的技术科学领域了。他在“超级空气动力学”(Superaerodynamics)、《工程控制论》和“物理力学”方面的论文和专著就是清楚的说明。

从事这样的工作并取得杰出的成就，除了个人的天赋之外，还必须经受严格的科学训练，付出极其辛勤的劳动。只有这样才能取得广泛而深刻的知识，也才能在反复的认识、再认识的艰苦过程中，克服一个个困难、最后取得满意的结果和如此杰出的成就。同时，还需要有敢于向未知或知之甚少的领域开拓的精神，需要有敢于向传统观念挑战的勇气。

在本世纪 30 年代，火箭在技术或理论上都是很很不成熟的，并且常常由于被用来和科幻小说中的登月和宇宙航行相联系，而被蒙上了一层神秘的外衣。直到那时，火箭的研究，除极个别情况外，还没有被纳入传统科学研究的议程。因此选择它作为严肃科学研究的对象，是冒着很大风险的，没有一种向未知领域挑战的严肃科学精神是做不到的。取得如此杰出的成就，更需要持之以恒的动力，而这个动力来自钱学森献身于以科学推动工程与技术的使命感和为中华民族争气争气的民族责任感和民族自豪感。

认真品味和欣赏钱学森的手稿，人们不仅会对他那清秀整洁的卷面赞叹不已，而且会深深体会到他的这种敬业精神和高尚情操。1978年在悼念因公牺牲的著名科学家郭永怀烈士的纪念会上，钱学森所讲的以下一段话，既是对亡友的深切怀念，也体现了他在科学研究中崇高的思想境界。这段话是：

“一方面是真确的理论，一方面是人热的斗争，是冷与热的结合，是理论与实践的结合。这里没有胆小鬼的藏身处，也没有自私自利的活动地；这里需要的是真才实学和献身精神。”

## 二

1947年钱学森回国省亲，在当时的浙江大学、上海交通大学和清华大学做了以工程科学（即现在我们所称呼的技术科学）和超级空气动力学为题的学术报告。我们从他的手稿中分别选取了这两个方面的一些材料。这里特别要讲一讲他对技术科学的观点，因为发展技术科学是他历来的主张，而且也是他的一个重要的学术思想和科学上的追求。

在人类文明的历史上，曾经有很长一段时间，自然科学（包含数学）与工程技术是沿着各自的道路分别发展的。虽然两者之间客观上有着深刻的联系，而且有的人既是科学家也是工程师，但是科学与技术被认为是两种不同的行业。那时自然科学追求的是客观世界的规律，而工程技术主要靠实践得到的经验来满足社会对物质生产“的需要。

社会经济的发展和国力的增强需要依靠工业与工程技术的发展，而自然科学的理论可以加速它们的发展，这种自觉的认识始于20世纪初。钱学森在他的报告里对此做了详细的介绍。由于当时的工业与自然科学中的力学关系最为密切，于是自然科学与工程的结合最早便以应用力学的形式在德国出现，并很快在世界上的发达国家得到推广。

历史证明，这种认识是十分正确的。除航空工业外，还有一些其他突出的例子。以稍后原子弹的研究历史为例，爱因斯坦确立了质量与能量间转换的原理和定量规律，物理学家和化学家发现了裂变物质，并且从原理上指出制造原子弹的可能性。然而原子弹的实

现,却是自然科学家与工程师为了一个共同的工程目标,遵循技术科学发展的规律,经过不断探索和密切合作才取得的结果,这进一步体现了技术科学的重要作用。二次世界大战期间,雷达技术也是沿着这样的思路发展的。

工程技术发展的这类实例逐渐使更多的人认识到,在自然科学和工程技术之间,存在着一个相对独立的,以自然科学成果为指导、以解决工程技术问题为目的的科学领域,这就是技术科学。

钱学森自1936年起,先是在应用力学的德国学派一代大师 von Kármán 门下学习,后来又长期在这个环境中以应用力学为手段,致力于推动航空工业的发展和开创火箭技术,并且有机会深入了解到美国和其他一些国家航空工业和火箭技术当时与未来发展的蓝图。1936—1945年,他还目睹了原子弹和雷达的发展。因此,他对技术科学有系统而深刻的了解和独特的见解。

他认为在自然科学与工程技术之间,客观上所存在着的技术科学将二者联系起来。为了促进工程技术的发展和增强国力,应当着力发展这个科学领域。为此,他对技术科学的目标和性质、技术科学特有的观点和方法论,它在当时所包括或所应包括的内容以及技术科学教育等,做了全面而深刻的阐述。应当说这是对技术科学最好的概括,起到了对技术科学界定的历史作用。

下面几段话引自钱学森发表于1948年“Engineering and Engineering Sciences”文的前言,精辟地概括了技术科学的性质和根本目标:

“人们回顾半个世纪来,社会的进步,对于对技术和科学研究的重要性,作为国家和国际事务的一个决定性因素,所受重视程度的巨大提高有深刻的印象。很显然,虽然在早期,技术与科学研究是未加区别的、个别的方式进行的,可是到了今天,在任何主要国家这种研究都是受到认真调控的。因而,如同长期以来的农业、金融政策或者外交关系一样,技术与科学研究现已成为国家的事情。认真考察研究工作的重要性得到如此重视的原因,自然会得出这样的答案,即研究工作现在是现代工业整体中的一个组成部分,不提及研究工作新建不了现代工业。既然工业是国家富强的基础,技术和科学研究就是国家富强的关键。”

“人们也许会说，在工业时代的开创时期，技术和科学研究就与工业发展有关，那么为什么今天把研究工作说得如此重要？”这个问题的答案是，出于国内和国际竞争的需要，现代工业必须以前所未有的速度发展。做到如此高的发展速度，就必须大大强化研究工作，把由基础科学的发现几乎马上用上。也许，没有什么比战时雷达和核能的发展作为例子更为突出的了。雷达技术和棉花的成功开发为盟方取得第二次世界大战的胜利做出了重要贡献。公认的事实，短短数年，紧张的研究工作把基础物理学的发现，通过实用的工程，变成了战争武器的成功应用。这样，纯科学上的事实与工业应用间的距离现在很短了。换句话说，今天发纯科学家和进入工程界的差别其实很小，为了使工业得到有成效的发展，他们间的密切合作是不可少的。”

“纯科学家与从事实用工作的工程中间密切合作的需要，产生了一个新的门类——工程研究家或工程科学家。他们成为纯粹科学和工程之间的桥梁。他们是将基础科学知识应用于工程问题的那些人……”

从以上文字，读者可以看到，50年前，钱学森就提出技术和科学研究“是国家富强的关键”，作者的爱国情操和洞察能力跃然纸上。在这里，钱学森认为，技术科学首先是服务于工程技术的。它为工程技术提供新原理、新概念、新目标、新途径、新方法、新技术等系统的理论基础与基础技术，促进和带动新产业和高技术的建立和发展。为了达到这样的目的，它必须充分掌握自然科学的最新成果，并深刻了解工程中存在的基本问题。因为工程师们面临的是多因素、复杂的实际问题，技术科学家必须善于从这些问题中找到主要矛盾，创立有充分自然科学依据的、能被工程师用于设计的、有预测能力的定量理论。所以技术科学家的目标是建立近似的实用理论，当发现自然科学的已有成果不够用时，也需要吸收和运用工程中经验性的规律和判断。所以技术科学在这一点上不同于自然科学。另一方面，技术科学又不同于工程技术，因为它的中心目的是研究和解决某类工程技术中带有普遍性的问题，而主要不是一个具体的工程技术问题。钱学森还认为，数学和计算数学作为一种工具占有十分主要的地位。

钱学森不仅提倡技术科学，而且是身体力行的。1947年他回

国做学术报告所选的两个题目，表面上看联系不大，实际上超级空气动力学(Superaerodynamics)正是技术科学中的一个很好的典型，因为它把分子运动论和空气动力学联系起来，论述了用于处理高空飞行问题的理论框架。这种情况贯穿于钱学森1947年以后的许多工作中。例如，作为最早认识到自动控制技术在火箭技术中重要作用的一位专家，他既创造性地研究了火箭发动机和火箭飞行控制的多种问题，又写出了为工程控制论这一学科奠基的专著。又如，为了深入研究火箭发动机，他应用统计力学、光谱学和化学动力学，研究了气体和液体的平衡和输运性质，又以技术科学的观点为美国加州理工学院的研究生开了名为物理力学的课程，这时其内容已不限于气体的力学问题了，而是开辟了技术科学的一个新的分支。

总之，大力发展技术科学是钱学森的一个基本主张。理解了这一点，就能较好地解释，为什么他的研究领域有这样的人的变化、为什么他努力从具体问题的研究提高到新学科的建立。他的目的是要为带动工程技术的发展，提供超前性的技术科学理论基础。本世纪后半叶科学技术的发展表明，他所提出的主张和倡导的技术科学分支具有很强的预见性。

### 三

为了体现钱学森学术思想的发展和学术领域的开拓，编者从他所从事的各个领域里，选择了一些代表性手稿的片断，虽说这样做肯定不可能反映那个时期他所从事工作的全貌，但我们仍然相信，读者能从中体验到他献身科学技术的执著精神、严密的治学态度、创造性的成就和所涉及的广泛领域。

他的研究领域包括以下四个方面，即应用力学、喷气推进、工程控制论和物理力学。应用力学又包含空气动力学和固体力学两个人的分支学科。书中选用的材料取自他15000余页的手稿。由于本书的目的并非反映专业内容，因此只就若干专题摘取了其中的少数几页。在每份材料之前，编者加了一些简短说明，目的是帮助非专业的读者了解所涉及的科学问题，以及这个问题在推动航空和喷气技术发展中所处的地位。

读者可以看到，一方面他的研究工作所涉及的科学问题是十分宽广的，另一方面又紧紧地瞄准了航空和火箭技术发展的需



要。同时他并不满足于仅仅解决一个个具体的科学问题，哪怕这些问题有多么重要。他总是在研究了这些问题之后，随即提出前瞻性极强、带有方向性的问题，并对之进行深入而系统的研究，为未来工程技术的发展指出新的方向。他的关于核动力推动的火箭的论文和关于用火箭推进的远程商用运输机的论文，便是这方面很典型的例子。当他发现一些自然科学的基础知识对解决一类技术问题不够用时，便根据工程技术的需要和特点，系统地从事其他自然科学汲取必要的知识，使其成为工程科学的一个新的分支。他的论文“Superaerodynamics - Rarefied Gas Dynamics”（超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学）以及他的专著《工程控制论》和《物理力学讲义》，是他长期研究空气动力学、火箭发动机和火箭飞行轨道控制和优化，发动机的热力学、热化学和热空气动力学后的研究成果，这些著作刻画了新的技术科学领域。1946年由他编著而以美国 Air Technical Service Command（空军技术后勤司令部）名义出版的、做为内部教材的《Jet Propulsion》（喷气推进）书，是美国第一部全面和系统地论述火箭与喷气推进科学技术的专著，内容有基本理论直到包括从导弹射程、制导和通信在内的喷气推进技术应用的众多方面。它是加州理工学院在喷气推进技术方面多年研究工作的总结与提高。本选编中的许多理论研究的内容在这本书中作了系统的反映。

所选手稿突出地表现出他的清秀、工整的字体，按照严格标准书写的运算方程和计算公式，以及规范化的列图列表等特征。这些特征贯穿了他的全部手稿，不论它们是来自草稿、初稿、修改稿还是算草或者草图。这正反映出他一贯的工作作风，至今他的所有手迹都保持着这种一丝不苟、严肃认真的精神。从他的算稿，读者可以看到那串串排列整齐的数据，有的长达八位。要知道在那时最好的计算工具是手摇的机械式计算器，而连最简单的对数函数和三角函数都要从厚厚的专门手册查找，并作内插计算才能得到。可见，这些数据后面包含了多少辛勤繁杂、严密细致的劳动。

钱学森的博士论文是属于流体力学方面的，但是在学位论文工作之后，他却首先转而研究薄壁扁壳和薄壁圆柱壳的失稳问题。这是因为这些都是当时困扰着航空工程师们的难题。那时的实验结果和理论推算之间存在着很大的差别，这是经典线性理论所不能解释的，对这种十分困难的非线性现象，那时还没有相应

的理论。在薄壁圆柱壳的失稳问题上，他十分认真地观察和分析了实验结果，经过反复尝试，他认识到，在失稳前后有一个能量跳跃过程，并且发现了一种符合实验现象的模式，用它可以得到远比线性理论所得结果好得多的失稳临界载荷。这个结果是在他经历了多次失败后才取得的，仅现在收集到的有关这个问题的手稿就有 800 多页，而正式发表的论文却只有 10 页。难怪在完成这项研究时，他在存放手稿的信袋上用红笔写下了“Final”，即“最后的定稿”。但是作为一名严肃的科学家，他意识到该理论仍有不足之处，因此他又写下了“Nothing is final”，即“（科学上）没有什么认识是最后的”这几个醒目的字。

这项工作典型地反映了钱学森当时研究工作的一个特点。这就是在复杂的现象中努力抓住最本质的东西，并在此基础上建立数学模型。由于求解非线性微分方程通常是极其困难的，因此在那时必须借助于进一步的近似才能得到解答，正因为如此，这个解答的正确性还需要经过实验的验证才能得到确认。到了今天，由于高速电子计算机的发展和数学理论的进展，人们在企图反映事物的主要矛盾和求解非线性方程方面，客观上所受的制约少多了，可以说发生了质的变化。对于一大批理论上成熟的问题，完全可以借助于计算机解决问题，而无需做多余的人为假设。在帮助认识复杂现象的内在规律方面，计算机作为数值实验的工具，也同样起很大的作用，因此在研究方法上，计算机把人们带入了一个新时代，人们对此必须有充分的认识。在这方面，钱学森也一直是个积极的倡寻者。

出于以上原因，他的论文手稿有另一个突出的特点。那就是，在数学公式推导之后，必然有数字演算，以表明理论结果不仅逻辑上站得住，而且数值上也与实验结果或实际经验相符，以表明理论公式是可靠的。完成这一过程往往需要多次反复，工作是十分艰辛的。

他十分强调，研究工作必须建立在对客观现象做认真的观察和前人工作的基础上，必要的话还需要自己做实验。《手稿》为表现这一点，特意从他的手稿中选出了关于文献调研的一份材料。他还认为仅仅知道在哪里可以找到所需要的资料，是远远不够的，必须切实消化和掌握它们，变成刻记在自己脑海中可以反复思考、随时调用和加工的东西。

他还指出，对于一个复杂的问题，往往需要经过多次的反复，经历若干个认识和再认识的过程，才能得到正确的结论。

引导这些反复的是随时将阶段性结论与实验结果或实践经验的对比。只有当通过了这些考验，而且在逻辑上又是严密的时候，才能肯定这个结论。

《手稿》还包含反映钱学森与同事和同行交流的材料。钱学森十分重视学术交流和不同观点的交锋。他不仅主持自己办的讨论班，而且经常参加别的讨论班，把它们作为自己教学和科研工作的-一部分。他也很重视个人间的交流，并时常旁听一些感兴趣的课程，以丰富自己的知识。这是他能大跨度地转移他的研究领域并迅速取得成果的重要原因之一。

综观《手稿》的全部内容，读者可以从中看到，钱学森早年在-美国从事航空航天领域及其相关学科的理论研究和风洞等问题的工程设计，为他回到祖国，在技术上领导我国火箭和航天事业奠定了广泛而坚实的基础，而且为开辟更广阔的技术科学领域做好了充分准备。

## 四

最后，我们要特别指出，钱学森在当年那种非常情况下急切回国之后，他的这些珍贵手稿曾散落在他的办公室和实验室的各个角落里。是他的好友，中国人民的朋友 Frank E. Marble（弗朗克·马勃）教授将它们一一收集起来，并加以初步分类和整理，在重开中美两国人民友好的新时期，将它们送回到钱学森的祖国。1996年12月6日，在中国科学院力学研究所举行了手稿交接仪式，国防科工委科技委秘书长王寿云少将代表国防科工委，力学研究所所长薛明伦研究员代表力学所，接收钱学森的手稿，他们对 F. Marble 教授这一友好的举措表示衷心的感谢。

正如 F. Marble 教授所说，能如此完整地收集到一位杰出科学家长达20年连续不断的科研工作手稿是十分难得的。为此，我们也要向他表示深切的感谢。我们认为他为我国科技文献档案提供了一份极其难得、异常珍贵的材料，它不仅有很高的收藏价值，而且对一代代年轻学子有直接的教育意义。由于篇幅所限，尽管《手稿》不能包涵钱学森手稿的全部科学内容，但它确实是钱学森的科学精神、科学态度和科学作风的典型代表。因此，我们把它献给读者，希望在一定程度上也能起相同的作用。《手稿》的出版也实现了

F. Marble 教授认为理应要把这些珍贵材料归还给钱学森所热爱、所奉献的祖国的宿愿。

还应当说明：由于编者水平所限，《手稿》定有缺点和错误，欢迎读者批评和指正。

F. Marble 教授将他多年收集的钱学森手稿送回我国的倡议，得到了国防科学技术工业委员会和中国科学院领导的大力支持，手稿分两批运回中国。在首次展出这些手稿时，师昌绪院士倡议将手稿编辑出版。朱兆祥教授及时提供了钱学森回国后不久参观访问东北时发表的演讲和观感以及酝酿和筹建力学研究所的有关记录，对了解钱学森倡导技术科学的思想以及钱学森为推进新中国的技术科学和航天技术发展的宏图大略帮助极大。

本《手稿》的另一位积极倡导者、支持者王寿云同志。他曾经长期担任钱学森的秘书，本人又是从北京大学数学力学系毕业。在钱老的指导下，他曾对钱老在国外的这一段工作进行清理和分析研究，提出过一些深刻的见解。以他为主要撰稿人，为《中国现代科学家传记》第一集所撰写的“钱学森”条目中对钱老早年工作的评价是我们编辑整理本《手稿》的主要参考依据之一。但是，就在本书选材、整理和编辑加工过程中，王寿云同志不幸去世。这对本书来说，无疑是个重大损失。本书的出版也是对王寿云同志的告慰。

山西教育出版社社长任兆文对本书的出版十分关心并亲自过问。出版社的金山同志出于对钱学森的崇敬之情，为出版本《手稿》做出了奉献。何善培研究员对工程控制论部分的选材提出了初步方案。戴汝为院士审阅了前言，并对有关工程控制论部分的内容，提出了宝贵的修改意见。原国防科学技术工业委员会和中国科学院力学研究所的有关工作人员对手稿的整理和本《手稿》的出版做出了一定的贡献。我们在此一并向他们表示诚挚的感谢。

## 手稿交接仪式上给 Frank E. Marble 教授的感谢信

### LETTER OF THANKS

Dear Professor & Mrs. Frank E. Marble:

We feel that we must not let the occasion pass without writing down in words about how much we appreciate your unrelenting efforts in the searching, sorting, marking and classification, and safe keeping of Professor Qian Xuesen's manuscripts over so many years, and to thank you for bringing us in person the last batch of his manuscripts.

As stated in your letter to the Xi'an Jiaotong University at the inauguration ceremony of the Qian Xuesen Library last April, it has long been your conviction that Qian's manuscripts should be returned to his own country. Today we are extremely happy to witness that your wish has finally been admirably fulfilled.

Part of Qian's manuscripts have been displayed at several exhibitions both in Xi'an and in Beijing. These exhibitions were very well received, because the manuscripts show a devoted and highly disciplined eminent scientific mind at work, and are therefore of great educational value. We firmly believe that these manuscripts will form part of Qian's legacy to his homeland, and will be a constant source of inspiration for students of science and engineering.

Here lies the great value of your contribution, for which we are most grateful.

Once again, our warmest thanks and best wishes.

Science and Technology Committee  
Commission of Science, Technology  
and Industry for National Defence  
People's Republic of China

Institute of Mechanics  
Chinese Academy of Sciences

December 5, 1996

## Frank E. Marble 教授在西安交通大学钱学森图书馆开幕式上的 书面发言

### COMMENTS FOR THE DEDICATION OF THE LIBRARY AT THE XI'AN JIAOTONG UNIVERSITY, DECEMBER 11, 1995

It is a pleasure and an honor to participate in the dedication of this fine library in the name of our friend, the eminent scientist and engineer, Tsien Hsue - shen.

Perhaps a few words about my small contribution to this celebration are appropriate. Although Tsien and I met briefly in 1946, it was the years of 1949 through 1955, after he returned to The California Institute of Technology, that I had the privilege of working closely with him. It was a period of enormous productivity for him and an intensely stimulating experience for me. During this period, and I am convinced that it was always so, Tsien exhibited skillfully, with keen knowledge of important technical issues and with the remarkable physical and analytical insight that characterizes all of his work. With these choices made, he moved quickly to the solution of the problem.

As an integral part of this process, Tsien wrote as he thought - producing an accurate, timely history of the intuition, analysis, and growth of each problem - on to its completion. Once the final document was polished to his satisfaction, these notes and calculations went into a large envelope (usually brown!) which, as I witnessed several times, was tossed casually onto his book shelves.

Many other matters occupied Tsien's mind as he returned to China and this material remained on his office shelves. Because I was probably the only one who knew the significance of their contents, I gathered these envelopes into files for safe keeping. Gradually, during the following years, I came across other files scattered in remote storage areas about the

Guggenheim Aeronautical Laboratory. To my surprise I found similar collections of notes - in similar brown envelopes, that dated back to his earliest work with Professor von Karman. Among these was the first theoretical analysis and calculations of boundary layers in supersonic flow, which constituted the first chapter of his doctoral thesis! Even a casual study of this 1937 work shows that he obtained results that were far broader than those published. In the end I was satisfied that I had assembled almost very nearly all of Tsien's scientific and technical records from the years 1936 - 1955 when he worked in the United States. It was always my aim that this material should be returned to his home and to my great personal satisfaction, through the kind efforts of Cheng Chien-min, this was accomplished about two years ago.

I believe that these detailed research notes, when correlated with his published works, constitute an unusually valuable record of the early years of a most remarkable scientific mind. I doubt that there is a comparable collection recording the vitally important technological contributions of any contemporary scientist and engineer. It is completely fitting and appropriate that this material should find its permanent home in the University at which their author received the foundations for his work.

Finally, I should like to take this opportunity of sending warm greetings from myself and from Ora Lee Marble to our dear friends Tsien Hsue - shen and Tsiang Yun with whom we shared treasured experiences during their years in Pasadena.



## 钱学森简历

钱学森, 1911年12月11日出生于上海, 是独生子。父亲钱均夫(原名家治, 号均夫)是浙江杭州一没落丝商第二子, 少小就学于当时维新的杭州求是书院, 曾到日本学教育和地理、历史。母亲章兰娟是当时杭州富商的女儿。钱学森的外祖父欣赏钱均夫的天才, 把自己的女儿许配给他。民国成立后, 钱均夫就职北京当时的教育部。钱学森在3岁时随父亲到了北京, 上过蒙养院(幼儿园)、女师大附小、师大附小和师大附中。

在北京师大附中时, 对钱学森影响最深的几位老师是: 林砺儒、王鹤清、董鲁安(于力)以及几何老师傅种孙、生物老师俞谟(俞君适)、博物老师李士博和美术老师高希舜(后来是著名国画大师)。林砺儒是校长(当时称主任), 他制定了一套以启发学生智力为目标的教学方案。王鹤清是化学老师, 他给钱学森自由到化学实验室做实验的便利, 这启发了他对科学的兴趣。董鲁安是国文老师, 在课堂上常常用较长的时间讨论时事, 表示厌恶北洋军阀政府, 憧憬国民革命军北上(后来他去了解放区)。他的教学使钱学森产生对旧社会腐败的深切不满和对祖国前途、人民命运的无比关心。钱学森一次在图书馆借了一本讲相对论的小册子, 书中第一句话提到20世纪有两位大师: 一位是自然科学大师A. 爱因斯坦(Einstein), 一位是社会科学大师列宁。钱学森当时对列宁这位大师还不甚了解。傅种孙那时已是师大数学讲师, 在中学课堂上把道理讲得很透。钱学森后来认为, 在初中三年级听傅老师的几何课, 使他第一次得知什么是严谨的科学。钱学森对老师们的教诲感激不尽, 他后来说: “我若能为国家为人民做点事, 也与中小学老师的教育不可分!”

1929年中学毕业后, 钱学森为复兴祖国, 决心学工科, 考入上海交通大学机械工程系。当时上海交大专重考试分数, 学期终了平均分算到小数点以后两位, 大家都为分数而奋斗。初入交大的钱学森对这里的“分数战”虽不甚满意, 但也不甘落后, 非考90分以上不可。在交大, 钱学森非常感激两位倡导把严密的科学理论与工程实际结合起来的老师, 一位是工程热力学教授陈石英, 一位是电机工程教授钟兆琳。

1930年暑假后期, 钱学森得了伤寒病, 在杭州家里卧病一月余,

后因体弱休学一年。在这一年里，他第一次接触到科学的社会主义。钱学森爱好美术，在书店买了一本讲艺术史的书，不曾想这本书是一位匈牙利社会科学家用唯物史观的论点写的。他从未想到对艺术可以进行科学分析，所以对这一理论发生了莫大的兴趣。接着他读了普列汉诺夫的艺术论、布哈林的唯物论等书，又看了一些西洋哲学史，也看了胡适的《中国哲学史大纲》（上册）。读了这么多书，他感到只有唯物史观和辩证唯物主义才是有道理的，唯心主义等等没有道理；经济学也是马克思的有道理，而资产阶级经济学那一套理论，则不能自圆其说。休学期满回到学校，钱学森开始接触到共产党的外围组织，参加过多次小型讨论会，从那里他知道了红军和解放区的存在。小组的领导人乔魁贤，是当时交大数学系的学生，小组还有许邦和、袁轶群和褚应璜。后来乔魁贤被学校开除；钱学森和小组的联系也逐渐中断，仍埋头读书，每学期平均分数都超过90分，因而得到免交学费的奖励。在上海交大，好友有林津、熊大纪、郑世芬、罗沛霖、茅于軾等。假期在杭州，因与学音乐的表弟李元庆思想相投而常交往，从他那里略闻左翼文艺运动的情况。

在1934年暑假，钱学森从上海交大机械工程系铁道机械工程专业毕业。尚未派定工作，就考取了清华大学公费留学、专业是飞机设计，两位导师一位是主助，一位是主上停。主助是我国早年航空工程师，设计制造了中国第一代飞机，他教导钱学森重视工程技术和制造工艺问题。主上停是清华教授，依照清华关于留学生的规定，钱学森在1934—1935年到杭州笕桥飞机厂实习，又到南京、南昌空军飞机修理厂见习，最后到北京参观清华并拜访导师主上停，也见到主上停当时的助教张捷珪。

1935年8月，钱学森从上海坐美国邮船公司的船离国，同船的留美同学有徐芝纶、夏默铎等。当时钱学森的心情是：中国混乱，豺狼当道，暂时到美国去学些技术，他日回来为国效劳。到了美国入麻省理工学院航空系，成绩不但比美国学生好，而且比同班的其他外国人都好，这使他感到作为一个中国人而自豪。因为学工程一定要到美国去，而当时美国航空工业不欢迎中国人，所以一年后他开始转向航空工程理论，即应用力学的学习。于是决定追随当时在加利福尼亚理工学院（简称加州理工学院）的力学大师L. 冯·卡门（von Kármán）教授。1936年10月，钱学森转学到加州理工学院，开始了与冯·卡门教授先是师生后是亲密合作者的情谊。冯·卡门第一次见到钱学森时，看到的是位个子不高、仪表严肃的年轻人；他异常准确地回答了教授的所有提问；他的思维敏捷和富于智



慧，顿时给冯·卡门以深刻的印象。冯·卡门教授教给钱学森从工程实践提取理论研究对象的原则，也教给他如何把理论应用到工程实践中去。冯·卡门每周主持一次研究讨论会(research conference)和一次学术研讨会(seminar)，这些学术活动给钱学森提供了锻炼创造性思维的良好机会。

到加州理工学院的第二年，即1937年秋，钱学森认识了热心研究火箭技术的同学F.J. 马林纳(Malina)，共同具有的火箭、音乐和政治兴趣，使两位青年结成良友。由马林纳介绍，钱学森参加了当时加州理工学院的马列主义学习小组，也结识该小组的书记、化学物理助理研究员S. 威因鲍姆(Weinbaum)。小组曾念过英国J.S.L. 斯崔奇(Strachey)著的一本书，后来也学习过恩格斯的《反杜林论》；每星期例会常讨论时事，主题是反法西斯和人民阵线；小组还参加过美国共产党书记E. 白劳德(Browder)的几次讲演会。1938年冬，第二次世界大战爆发后，不少小组成员加入了美国共产党，也有人参加了军事研究，这个小组就无形解散了。后来，马林纳在麦卡锡(Joseph R. McCarthy)主义反动浪潮席卷美国的初期，辞去了加州理工学院的喷气推进实验室主任职务，去巴黎为联合国教科文组织服务，并成为现代派画家，1981年11月9日在巴黎病逝。

钱学森在加州理工学院的博士论文工作是在1939年6月结束的，论文为《高速气动力学问题的研究》等四篇。取得航空数学博士学位后，任加州理工学院航空系的助理研究员，直到1944年。在这段时间内，先从事薄壳体稳定性的研究，1940年完成了研究课题，并撰写了论文在美航空学会年会上宣读，算是独立研究，出了师。此后钱学森成为冯·卡门的助手，帮助他指导研究生的论文。1940年，由于王助的推荐，钱学森成为成都航空研究所的通讯研究员，写了一篇题为《高速气流突变之测定》的专论(刊登在该所报告第三号)。

1941年，从加拿大来了几位庚子赔款的留学生：郭永怀、林家翘、傅承义，1942年又来了钱伟长。钱学森和他们相处得比较密切，一般是一起吃晚饭，并常常讨论各种问题。钱伟长多才多艺，傅承义专攻地球物理。钱学森和郭永怀最相知(后来在1957年初，有关方面询问谁是承担核武器爆炸力学工作最合适的人选时，钱学森毫不迟疑地推荐了郭永怀)。1943年秋冬，周培源也到加州理工学院来做研究工作，找冯·卡门教授讨论湍流统计理论等。这一群中国同学，还有张捷迁、毕德显，星期天总到周培源老师家去玩，高谈国事，也

替师母王蒂澈烹制午餐

到1942年，钱学森的研究工作已有成绩，并教了些学生；同时由于美国战时军事科学研究的需要，暂时放松了对外国人的限制，故得以参加机密性工作。1939年前后，美国空军开始支持火箭研究。1942年，美国军方委托加州理工学院举办喷气技术训练班，钱学森是教员之一，与陆海空三军技术人员有了接触。后来美军从事火箭导弹的军官中，有不少是他当时的学生。1944年，美国陆军得知德国研制V-2火箭的情报，遂委托冯·卡门教授领导，马林纳为副，大力研究远程火箭。美军原始型的“下士”式导弹就是他们那时开始设计的。钱学森负责理论组，把林家翘、钱伟长也请了来，进行弹道分析、燃烧室热传导、燃烧理论研究等工作。同时钱学森还当了航空喷气公司（Aerojet Company）的技术顾问，加州理工学院提升钱学森为讲师。冯·卡门对钱学森是很欣赏的，所以在1945年初他被空军聘为科学咨询团团长的时候，提名钱学森为团员。这个团为美国空军提供了一个远景发展意见，钱学森从中学到从大处和远处设想科技发展问题的方法。1945年5月，第二次世界大战结束的前夕，钱学森随科学咨询团去欧洲，考察英、德、法等国的航空研究，特别是法西斯德国的火箭技术发展情况。这时加州理工学院提升他为副教授。这一时期，他取得了在近代力学和喷气推进的科学研究方面的宝贵经验，成为当时有名望的优秀科学家。冯·卡门这样评价钱学森：“他在许多数学问题上和我一起工作。我发现他非常富有想象力，他具有天赋的数学才智，能成功地把它与准确洞察自然现象中的物理图景的非凡能力结合在一起。作为一个青年学生，他帮我提炼了我自己的某些思想，使一些很艰深的命题变得豁然开朗。”

1946年暑期，冯·卡门教授因与加州理工学院当局有分歧而辞职，作为冯·卡门的学生，钱学森也离开加州理工学院，再到麻省理工学院任副教授，专教空气动力学专业的研究生。1947年初，36岁的钱学森进入了麻省理工学院年轻的正教授行列。同年夏季，钱学森向麻省理工学院当局请假回国探亲，9月中和蒋英结婚。蒋英是蒋百里、蒋左梅夫妇的第三女，生于1920年9月，是在维也纳和柏林受过良好的音乐教育的女高音声乐家。蒋百里是旧中国著名的军事理论家，蒋左梅是日裔友人。

1948年祖国解放事业胜利在望，钱学森开始准备归国。为此也要求退出美国空军科学咨询团，但直到1949年才得以实现。他兼任的美国海军炮火研究所顾问的职务，直到1949年秋从麻省理工

院回到加州理工学院就任喷气推进技术教授职务时才辞去。

1949年5月20日,钱学森收到美国芝加哥大学金属研究所副教授研究员、留美中国科学工作者协会(简称留美科协)美中区负责人葛庭燧写来的信,同时转来1949年5月14日曹日昌教授(中共党员,当时在香港大学任教)写给钱学森的信,转达即将解放的祖国召唤他回国服务、领导中华人民共和国航空工业建设之切切深情。这时钱学森还看到周培源给林家翘的信,得知北京西郊解放时的良好情况。也见到在加州理工学院当研究生的罗沛霖(曾经以非党技术人员身份在延安工作过),他认为钱学森回国为解放了的祖国服务的时候到了。钱学森遂加紧了回祖国的准备,以便实现他多年的夙愿。

但这时正直麦卡锡主义横行,美国全国掀起一股要雇员们效忠政府的歇斯底里狂热。几乎每天都发生对大学和其他机构进行审查或威胁性审查的事件。加州理工学院也被涉及,因威因鲍姆下狱,怀疑落到钱学森身上。1950年7月,美国政府决定取消钱学森参加机密研究的资格,理由是他与威因鲍姆有朋友关系,并指控钱学森是美国共产党员,非法入境。钱学森这时立即决定以探亲为名回国,准备一去不返。但当他一家将要出发的时候,钱学森被拘留起来,两星期后虽在几位美国同事好友的大力帮助下保释出来,但继续受到移民局根据麦卡锡法案进行的迫害,行动处处受到移民局的限制和联邦调查局特务的监视,被滞留5年之久。1955年6月的一天,钱学森大如摆脱特务监视,在一封写在一张小香烟纸上寄给在比利时亲戚的家中,夹带了给陈叔通先生的信,请求祖国帮助他早日回国。陈叔通先生收到这封信的当天,就把它送到周恩来总理手甲。1955年8月1日,中美大使级会谈在日内瓦开始,王炳南大使按照周总理的授意,以钱学森这封信为依据,与美方进行交涉和斗争,迫使美国政府不得不允许钱学森离美回国。8月5日,钱学森接到美国政府的通知,说他可以回国。但在乘坐美国邮船的归途中,他仍被当作犯人对付。

在1950年到1955年这一段争取回国的时间里,钱学森因受到特务监视,感到压力很大,除了教书和做研究工作以外,学术活动和社会活动参加得很少,但仍未放弃学术研究。钱学森这个时期的主要创造性的研究成果是1954年在美国发表的《工程控制论》一书及讲授力学工作介质物理性质的理论“物理力学”。当钱学森在回国前夕同蒋英带着幼儿钱永刚、幼女钱永真向他的老师告别时,冯·卡门充满感情地说:“你现在学术上已经超过我!”

就在美国政府迫害钱学森的5年中,加州理工学院的许多美国朋友安慰他,千方百计地给他解决困难,表示了真诚的友情,如,W. R. 西尔斯(Sears)教授、F. 马布尔(Marble)教授、M. 米尔斯(Mills)、登肯·兰尼(Duncan Ranney)等。

钱学森后来回顾在美国的经历时说:“我从1935年去美国,1955年回国,在美国待了20年。20年中,前3~4年是学习,后十几年是工作,所有这一切都在做准备,为了回到祖国后能为人民做点事。我在美国那么长时间,从来没想过这一辈子要在那里待下去。我这么说是有根据的。因为在美国,一个人参加工作,总要把他的一部分收入存入保险公司,以备晚年退休之后用。在美国期间,有人好几次问我存了保险金没有,我说一块美元也不存,他们感到很奇怪。其实没什么奇怪的。因为我是中国人,根本不打算在美国住一辈子。”

钱学森一家1955年10月8日到达香港,同日过国境,回到了祖国。从香港上码头开始,通过与中国旅行社同志的接触,感受到了祖国的温暖。进入国境,钱学森一家见到了科学院派来接他们的朱兆祥。党和政府对他们的照顾无微不至。钱学森受到广东省委书记陶铸的接见并在广州参观。经过上海、杭州,最后到了北京。不久,领导上安排钱学森到东北去参观,看了农村和工厂,特别是飞机厂等,饱览了祖国欣欣向荣的景象。

1955年11月,钱学森和钱伟长合作筹建中国科学院力学研究所。1956年1月5日,力学所正式成立,钱学森任第一任所长,直至70年代后期。在钱学森倡议下,中国力学学会在1957年正式成立,钱学森被一致推举为第一任理事长。1958年任中国科学技术大学近代力学系主任,讲授星际航行概论和物理力学。

1956年春,钱学森应邀出席中国人民政治协商会议第二届全国委员会第二次全体会议,并在会上发言。2月11日晚,毛泽东主席设宴招待全体委员,并特别安排钱学森同自己坐在一起,进行了亲切的谈话。这是一个有意义的时刻,它表明了钱学森从1955年10月8日回到祖国后,已全身心地投入一项新的事业——中国共产党领导的现代化建设事业。1959年经杜润生、杨刚毅介绍,钱学森加入了中国共产党。

1957年,钱学森所著《工程控制论》获中国科学院自然科学奖一等奖,并被补选为中国科学院学部委员。同年9月,国际自动控制联合会(IFAC)成立大会推举钱学森为第一届IFAC理事会常务理事。1961年,在中国自动化学会成立大会上,全体代表一致推举钱学森

为首任理事长

在40年代试验导弹的日子里,钱学森就意识到导弹日益增长着的重要性,需要一种他称之为喷气式武器部的新机构,用新的军事思想和方法专门进行研究。新中国国防建设的需要,为他实现这一预见提供了历史的机遇。在哈尔滨参观中国人民解放军军事工程学院时,院长陈赓大将专程从北京赶回哈尔滨接见钱学森。他问钱学森的第一句话是:“中国人搞导弹行不行?”钱学森说:“外国人能干的,中国人为什么不能干?”陈赓大将说:“好!就要你这一句话。”这次谈话,决定了钱学森从事火箭、导弹和航天事业的生涯。1955年12月27日,万毅根据彭德怀元帅的指示,详细地听取了钱学森关于如何发展我国火箭导弹技术的意见。1956年2月17日,在周恩来总理的鼓励下,作为一个刚刚回归祖国不久的科学家,钱学森怀着对新中国国防事业强烈的责任感,给国务院写了关于《建立我国国防航空工业的意见书》(当时为保密起见,用“国防航空工业”这个词来代表火箭、导弹和后来所称的航空航天技术)。《意见书》指出:“健全的航空工业,除了制造工厂之外,还应该有一个强大的为设计服务的研究及试验单位,应该有一个作长远及基本研究的单位。自然,这几个部门应该有一个统一领导的机构,做全面规划及安排的工作。”《意见书》提出了我国“国防航空工业”的组织草案、发展计划和具体步骤,并且开列了一张可以调来做高级技术工作的21人名单,包括任新民、罗沛霖、梁守槃、胡海昌、庄逢日、罗时钧、林同骥等。《意见书》立即引起中央的重视,周恩来总理在1956年3月14日亲自主持会议研究,决定由周恩来总理、聂荣臻元帅和钱学森等筹备组建导弹航空科学研究的领导机构——航空工业委员会,委员会下设立:(1)设计机构;(2)科学机构;(3)生产机构。1956年4月13日,国务院成立了以聂荣臻元帅为主任的航空工业委员会(当时对外不公开),钱学森被任命为委员。

1956年春,周恩来总理亲自领导数百名科学技术专家,制订新中国第一个远大的规划——《1956至1967年科学技术发展远景规划纲要》,确定了57项国家重要科学技术任务。由钱学森主持,在王澍、沈元、任新民等的合作下完成了第37项(《喷气和火箭技术的建立》)的规划。钱学森等在这项重要科学技术任务的说明书中指出:“喷气和火箭技术是现代国防事业的两个主要方面:一方面是喷气式的飞机,一方面是导弹。没有这两种技术,就没有现代的航空,就没有现代的国防。建立了喷气和导弹的技术,民用航空方面的科学技

术问题也就不难解决”；“本任务的预期结果是建立并发展喷气和火箭技术，以便在 12 年内使我国喷气和火箭技术走上独立发展的道路并接近世界先进的科学技术水平，以满足国防的需要”；解决本任务的途径：“必须尽快建立包括研究、设计和试制的综合性的导弹研究机构，并逐步建立飞机方面的各个研究机构”；解决本任务的大体进度：“1963—1967 年，在本国研究工作的指导下，独立进行设计和制造国防上需要的、达到当时先进性指标指标的导弹”；组织措施是：“在国防部的航空委员会下成立导弹研究院，该院自 1956 年起开始建设，1960 年建成” 1956 年 5 月 10 日，聂荣臻元帅提出《关于建立我国导弹研究工作初步意见》，并且建议：在航空工业委员会下设立导弹管理局，钱学森任总工程师；建立导弹研究院，钱学森任院长。钱学森很快受命负责组建我国第一个火箭、导弹研究院——国防部第五研究院。1956 年 10 月 8 日，恰好是钱学森回归祖国一周年的日子，聂荣臻元帅亲自主持五院成立仪式。这一天也是对新中国 156 名大学毕业生进行导弹专业教育训练班的开课纪念日。钱学森主讲《导弹概论》。在 1942 年加州理工学院喷气技术训练班授课 14 年之后，钱学森为能在自己的国家培养我国第一批火箭、导弹技术人才，感到无比激动。这批受训的大学生，后来成为我国火箭、导弹与航天技术队伍的骨干。1957 年 2 月 18 日，周恩来总理签署国务院命令，任命钱学森为国防部第五研究院第一任院长。从此，在周恩来总理、聂荣臻元帅直接领导下，钱学森开始了作为新中国火箭、导弹和航天事业技术领导人的长期经历。1957 年 11 月 16 日，周恩来总理任命钱学森兼任国防部第五研究院一分院院长。1958 年 5 月 29 日，聂荣臻元帅同黄克诚、钱学森一起部署了我国第一枚近程导弹的制造工作。1960 年 11 月 5 日，在聂荣臻元帅现场亲自指导下，以张爱萍将军为主任，孙继先、钱学森、王诤为副主任的试验委员会，在我国酒泉发射场成功地组织了我国制造的第一枚近程导弹的飞行试验。正如聂荣臻元帅在庆祝宴会的祝酒词中所说，在祖国的地平线上，飞起了我国自己制造的第一枚导弹，这是我国军事装备史上一个重要的转折点。1964 年 6 月 29 日，我国第一个自行设计的中近程导弹进行飞行试验获得成功。1966 年 10 月 27 日，遵照周恩来总理“严肃认真、周到细致、稳妥可靠、万无一失”的指示，钱学森协助聂荣臻元帅，在酒泉发射场直接领导了用中近程导弹运载原子弹的“两弹结合”飞行试验，导弹飞行正常，原子弹在预定的距离和高度实现核爆炸。这次史无前例的试验标志着中国开始有了用

于自己的导弹核武器,也标志着《1956至1967年科学技术发展远景规划纲要》规定的“1963—1967年在本国研究工作的指导下,独立进行设计和制造国防上需要的、达到当时先进性指标指标的导弹”这一任务的提前完成。第二天,即1966年10月28日,《纽约时报》用这样的文字报道了这一重大事件:“一位15年中在美国接受教育、培养、鼓励并成为科学名流的人,负责了这项试验,这是对冷战历史的嘲弄。1950—1955年的5年中,美国政府成为这位科学家的迫害者,将他视为异己的共产党分子予以拘捕,并试图改变他的思想、违背他的意愿滞留他,最后才放逐他出境回到自己的祖国。”

早在1953年,钱学森就研究了星际航行理论的可行性。1958年,中国科学院成立以钱学森为组长,赵九章和卫一清为副组长的领导小组,负责筹建人造卫星、运载火箭以及卫星探测仪器和空间物理的设计、研究。1961年6月,在钱学森、赵九章等的倡导下,中国科学院开始举办了持续12次的星际航行座谈会,钱学森在第一次座谈会上发表了题为《今天苏联及美国星际航行火箭动力及其展望》的讲演。1963年,中国科学院成立了由竺可桢、裴丽生、钱学森、赵九章领导的星际航行委员会,负责组织制订星际航行发展规划,安排预先研究课题。1965年1月8日,钱学森正式向国家提出报告,建议早日制订我国人造卫星的研究计划并列入国家任务。钱学森指出:“自从苏联在1957年10月4日发射第一颗人造地球卫星以来,中国科学院及原第五研究院对这项新技术就有些考虑,但未作为研制任务。现在看来,人造卫星有以下几种已经明确的用途:测地卫星、通讯及广播卫星、预警卫星、气象卫星、导航卫星、侦察卫星。重量更大的载人卫星在国际上的应用,现在虽然还不十分明确,也得有所准备。现在我国弹道式导弹已有一定的基础,现有型号进一步发展,即能发射100公斤左右重量的仪器卫星。这些工作是复杂艰巨的,必须及早开展有关的研究、研制工作,才能到时拿出东西。因此,建议国家早日制订我国人造卫星的研究计划,列入国家任务,促进这项重大的国防科学技术的发展。”聂荣臻元帅很重视钱学森的建议,指出:“只要力量上有可能,就要积极去搞。”1965年4月29日,国防科委向中央专门委员会报告了邀请张劲夫、钱学森、孙俊人及国家科委、国防工办专业局的负责同志和专家进行研究的结果,提出了在1970年或1971年发射我国重量为100公斤左右的第一颗人造地球卫星的设想。中央专门委员会于1965年5月4、5日召开的第12次会议和8月9、

日、10日召开的第13次会议，原则批准了我国第一颗人造卫星的规划方案，以及争取在1970年左右发射我国第一颗人造卫星的设想。钱学森为解决人造卫星研制中的许多关键技术问题贡献了智慧。譬如，在1966年6月下旬，第一颗人造卫星的运载火箭“长征一号”，为解决滑行段喷管控制问题而进行的滑行段晃动半实物仿真试验，出现了晃动幅值达几十米的异常现象。钱学森亲临现场，在讨论中认定：此现象在近于失重状态下产生，原晃动模型已不成立，此时流体已呈粉末状态，晃动力很小，不影响飞行。后来多次飞行试验证明，这个结论是正确的。在“文化大革命”的日子里，钱学森协助周恩来总理，为领导人造卫星研制计划的正常进行，发挥了特殊的作用。譬如，由于“文化大革命”，“长征一号”运载火箭试车无法进行，1969年7月17日、18日、19日和25日，周恩来总理连续4次召开会议，解决二级和三级地面试车问题，委派钱学森协同七机部军管会副主任杨国宇全权处理有关试车事宜。从而得以在8月22日取得试车成功。1970年，在周恩来总理的直接关怀下，钱学森、李福泽、杨国宇、任新民、戚发轫等在酒泉卫星发射场组织实施了第一颗人造卫星的发射工作。1970年4月24日，重量为173公斤的我国第一颗人造卫星发射成功。钱学森和发射基地的领导人及试验队的代表在现场发表了热情洋溢的讲话。“九·一”国际劳动节晚上，毛泽东主席、周恩来总理在天安门城楼上接见了钱学森、任新民等参加第一颗卫星工程研制的代表。这颗卫星向全世界播送的《东方红》乐曲，宣告了新中国迎来了航天时代的黎明。

周恩来总理和聂荣臻元帅是钱学森最崇敬的我国科技事业领导人。他说过：“按照我的体会，周总理、聂老总就是把他们过去在解放战争中组织大规模作战的那套办法，有效地用到科技工作中来，把成千上万的科技大军组织起来了。”

钱学森1965年2月15日任第七机械工业部副部长，1968年兼任中国空间研究院第一任院长，1970年6月12日任国防科学技术委员会副主任，1982年任国防科学技术工业委员会科学技术委员会副主任（1987年7月任高级顾问）。钱学森是中国共产党第九、第十、第十一、第十二届全国代表大会代表和中央委员会候补委员。

1979年，钱学森荣获加州理工学院“杰出校友奖”（The Distinguished Alumni Award）。



1985年,钱学森因对我国战略导弹技术的贡献,作为第一获奖人和屠守锷、姚桐斌、郝复俭、梁思礼、庄逢甘、李绪鄂等获全国科技进步特等奖

1986年4月—1998年3月,任中国人民政治协商会议第六、七、八届全国委员会副主席;1986年6月—1991年5月任第三届中国科学技术协会主席,现为名誉主席

1989年6月29日,在美国纽约召开的1989年国际技术与技术交流大会授予钱学森“威拉德 W. F. 小罗克韦尔 (Rockwell, Jr.) 奖章”和“世界级科学与工程名人”、“国际理工研究所名誉成员”的称号,表彰他对火箭导弹技术、航天技术和系统工程理论做出的重大开拓性贡献,称他“在作为加州理工学院学生时代,冯·卡门教授就因他在喷气推进和超声速飞机设计方面的才智而对他特别宠爱。在有关火箭设计的研究工作中,为发展喷气推进,他引入了钱学森公式。钱学森长期担任中国先驱的火箭和航天计划的技术领导人。他对航天技术、系统科学和系统工程做出了巨大的和开拓性的贡献。”1991年10月国务院、中央军委授予钱学森“国家杰出贡献科学家”荣誉称号和全军一级英模奖章,1999年9月中共中央、国务院、中央军委授予钱学森“两弹一星功勋奖章”,以表彰他对我国科学技术事业,特别是“两弹一星”事业做出的贡献



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# 应 用 力 学

## 1.1

### 空气动力学

#### 1.1.1

#### Boundary Layer in Compressible Fluids

#### 可压缩流体边界层

1934年,钱学森从交通大学机械工程系铁道机械工程专业毕业,有志于发展中国的航空事业,考取了公费留美,学习飞机设计。1935年,进入美国麻省理工学院航空系,一年后获硕士学位。就在这时,他了解到美国当时,工厂不欢迎中国人后,于1936年10月转学到加州理工学院,师从Hedolore von Kármán(冯·卡门)学习航空工程理论,即应用力学。

当时航空界正在从低速飞行向高速飞行的方向发展。当飞行速度提高以后,飞行体所受空气的阻力和热效应究竟会发生什么变化?导师 von Kármán 建议作者对这一问题进行理论探讨。在那时的科技文献中,普遍认为在亚声速飞行中空气阻力主要来自击波阻力,而表面摩擦并不重要。至于热效应,一般认为飞行体的表面被周围的空气所冷却。

对于这个问题,钱学森认为本难在于:高速流动中飞行体表面温度会发生显著的变化,方程不再是线性的。作者采用了 von Mises 简化边界



层方程的做法，然后运用逐次近似解法求解非线性方程，取得了成功。他把已知的不可压缩流动的解推广到可压缩流动，即飞行马赫数较大的情况，得到有关高速飞行体的阻力和表面热效应两方面的重要结论：第一，在高速飞行中，可压缩性对表面摩擦具有重要的影响，高速弹体和火箭因摩擦引起的阻力将超过压差引起的阻力；第二，当飞行马赫数增大到一定数值，飞行体表面的空气薄层中所产生的热不仅不能被忽略，而且将对飞行体起加热的作用。作者这一工作从理论上预见了实现高速飞行将面临的一大障碍，即后人所谓的“热障”，必须对飞行体表面采取有效的冷却或防护措施，才能实现高速飞行。

上述研究结果成为他博士论文的一部分，并写了题为“Boundary Layer in Compressible Fluids”（可压缩流体边界层）的论文，发表在1938年的《Journal of Aeronautical Sciences》（航空科学学报）上。这里选印的有关材料共计36页，包括3个部分，即：1. 导师 von Kármán 在工作开始前给作者的书面指导，共3页；2. 作者所写的演算手稿（250页）中的一部分，共5页；以及3. 作者的论文手稿的一部分，共28页，包括两页关于两圆角例题的草稿。从第1部分的材料中，可以看出导师 von Kármán 建议作者试以 von Mises 的方法和逐次迭代近似方法。从第2部分的材料中，可以看到作者的严密的工作作风，工作一开始他便收集和阅读参考文献，并且制订了研究计划，然后从基本方程出发寻求解答。第3部分的手稿中有导师 von Kármán 的多处重要修改。

For the given:

Differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\rho \mu u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}) \quad (1)$$

Put

$$u = \frac{U}{\sqrt{x}} \quad \frac{U}{\sqrt{x}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

then:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{du}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} (\rho \mu u \frac{du}{dy}) \quad (2)$$

Iteration method:

$$\text{define } (g, \mu, u) = f(\eta)$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{du}{dy} = \frac{dg}{dy} \frac{du}{dy} + g \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2}$$

or

$$\frac{d^2 u}{dy^2} = -\frac{1}{g} \left( \frac{1}{2} \eta + \frac{dg}{dy} \right) \frac{du}{dy} \quad (3)$$

integrated

$$\log \frac{du}{dy} = C - \log g - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\eta dy}{g(\eta)}$$

$$\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{A}{g} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\eta dy}{g(\eta)}}$$

and

$$u = A \int \frac{1}{g(\eta)} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\eta dy}{g(\eta)}} d\eta$$

Calculate  $u, g, \mu$  now  $g(\eta)$  and iterate.

$$\begin{aligned} u &= A \int \frac{1}{g(\eta)} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\eta dy}{g(\eta)}} d\eta = 2A \int \frac{1}{\eta} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\eta dy}{g(\eta)}} d\eta \\ \frac{du}{dy} &= \frac{du}{d\eta} \frac{d\eta}{dy} = \frac{du}{d\eta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \Rightarrow \frac{2A}{\sqrt{x}} \frac{1}{\eta} \end{aligned}$$

1)

$$\rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v) = 0$$

$$\eta = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$\rho u = f(\eta)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = -\frac{\eta}{2x} \frac{d}{d\eta}$$

$$\rho v = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}(f - \eta f') = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}(\eta f' - f)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \frac{d}{d\eta}$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = g(\eta)$$

$$\mu = h(\eta)$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} f(\eta) \eta \frac{d}{d\eta} (f') + \frac{1}{2} (\eta f' - f) \frac{d}{d\eta} (f') = \frac{d}{d\eta} \left[ h \frac{d}{d\eta} (f') \right]$$

B) Try Mix' method!

Oct. 11

for the Theorem

$$-\frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{du}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} \left( \rho \mu u \frac{du}{dy} \right)$$

$$\frac{4}{15}$$

Introduce  $\int \rho \mu u du = F(u)$   
 $F'(u) = f(u)$

Then multiply both sides by  $f(u)$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{du}{dy} f(u) = f(u) \frac{dF}{dy} \quad \text{if } f(u) = \frac{du}{dy}$$

or

$$-\frac{1}{2} \eta \frac{dF}{dy} = f(u) \frac{dF}{dy} \quad (2)$$

and finally

$$f(u) = f(u) \rho \mu u = f(u) \quad \text{since } f(u) = \frac{du}{dy}$$

$$\frac{1}{dy} \frac{dF}{dy} = - \frac{\frac{1}{2} \eta}{f(u)}$$

$$\frac{dF}{dy} = C e^{-\int \frac{1}{2} \eta dy / f(u)} \quad (3)$$

(same as before however now

$$F = C \int dy e^{-\int \frac{1}{2} \eta dy / f(u)}$$

and for  $y \rightarrow \infty$

$$\int \rho \mu u du = C \int dy e^{-\int \frac{1}{2} \eta dy / f(u)}$$

$$\rho \mu u \left( \frac{du}{dy} \right)_w = \rho \mu u \left( \frac{du}{dy} \right)_w = C$$

$$\tau = \rho \mu u \tau$$

$$\text{Yard} \quad \text{Caliber} = 6' \quad \text{10.51} \quad \text{6.51} = 1.01 \times 10^3$$

$$\text{Altitude} = (10 \text{ km} = 10,000) = 32.5 \times 10^3$$

$$\sigma = 0.3242$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = 2.080$$

$$V = 157.08 \text{ m/s}$$

$$a = 0.0014 \text{ m/s}^2 = 9.8 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$1/2 = 1.0 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = -1.26 \times 10^{-3} \quad 0.00007$$

$$f_0$$

$$h_0 = 0.0014 \times 10^3 \times 10^3 = 1.0 \times 10^3$$

$$C_p = \frac{1.26 \times 10^3}{1.0 \times 10^3} = 0.00310$$

$$C_{p_f} = 0.0014 \times \frac{10^3}{10^3} \times 10^3 = 0.0014$$

$$C_{p_f} = 0.0014$$

# Mean Free Path of Air Molecules

$$l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \pi n \sigma^2}$$

for air  $\sigma = 3.46 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm.}$

$$\sigma^2 = 1.196 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm.}^2$$

$$l = \frac{1 \times 2.2414 \times 10^8 \times \frac{273}{273}}{\pi \sqrt{2} \times 1.196 \times 10^{-15} \times 6.064 \times 10^{23}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

where  $\sigma$  = density ratio.

$$\therefore l = 0.734 \times 10^{-5} \frac{1}{\sigma} = \quad \text{at}$$

If  $H = 50 \text{ km.}, T = 45^\circ, \sigma = 0.022671$

$$l = \frac{0.734 \times 10^{-5}}{0.022671 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.093 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm.}$$

$$\delta \sqrt{\frac{U}{U_0}} = 9 \quad \text{for } U/a = 1.0$$

$$\delta \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{U \lambda}{U_0}} = 9$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\lambda} = \frac{9}{\sqrt{\frac{U \lambda}{U_0}}} = \frac{9 \times 10^{-8}}{\sqrt{\frac{1.7 \times 10^{-8}}{5.1}}} = 3.76 \times 10^{-2} = 0.0376$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1.7 \times 10^{-8}}{0.0376} = 4.52 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm.}$$

$$\delta = 0.0376 \times 4.52 \times 10^{-8} = 1.7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm.}$$

Fig. 1. No legend

Fig. 2. ~~Heat Transfer Coefficient~~

(A) No Heat transfer to ~~the~~ wall

(B) Wall Temperature ~~kept at the same as~~  
~~the~~ kept at  $1/4$  to that  
of free stream

(C) Von Karman's first approximation

2.3. ~~Adiabatic~~ ~~Temperature~~ ~~& Temperature~~  
~~the~~ ~~for the case~~ ~~where~~ ~~the~~ ~~is~~  
to ~~the~~ wall

Fig. 4. Velocity & Temperature ~~constant~~  
~~for the case~~ ~~where~~ ~~the~~ ~~is~~  
 $1/4$  of that of free stream

Fig. 5. ~~First approximation~~ ~~of the~~  
~~first approximation~~ ~~of the~~ ~~at~~ ~~2~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~  
~~of the~~ ~~the~~

Fig. 6. ~~First approximation~~ ~~of the~~ ~~at~~ ~~2~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~  
~~of the~~ ~~the~~

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V Convegno della Fondazione Alessandro Volta

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See review of 11

# Boundary Layer in Compressible Fluids

by H. von Karman and H. S. Tsien

1

The interest in the theory of the boundary layer in compressible fluids has increased considerably in recent years. Several authors have noticed that the theory of the laminar boundary layer can be extended to the case of compressible fluids moving with arbitrarily high velocities without insurmountable mathematical difficulties being involved. Busemann (1)

has shown that the velocity profile in the boundary layer can be obtained by the method of characteristics. He has also shown that the velocity profile in the boundary layer can be obtained by the method of characteristics.

It is well known that the velocity profile in the boundary layer can be obtained by the method of characteristics. He has also shown that the velocity profile in the boundary layer can be obtained by the method of characteristics.

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~~That the previous invoice was not the No. 1000~~

but upon the last point, I am not responsible.



# Boundary Layer of in Compressible Fluids

Th. von Kármán and H.S. Tsien

The introduction of <sup>variable</sup> density to the study of flow of fluids makes the general situation very difficult, even without considering viscosity. For the case of laminar boundary layer, however, the equations of motion of compressible fluids seems fairly simple + ~~in the case of~~ <sup>the</sup> high speed flight for which the effect of compressibility is ~~very great~~ <sup>important</sup> will probably be conducted in future at very high altitude ~~where~~ <sup>due to</sup> greatly reduced density ~~the Reynolds number will be low~~ <sup>is not</sup> ~~the laminar shear friction will probably predominate the turbulent shear friction~~

Susemann, Frankl and von Kármán have made

- 1) A Susemann, *parabromung mit laminar ...* entlang einer Platte Z.A.M.M. Vol XV, p. 25, 1935
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some investigation in this problem. Johnson and his  
 paper is rather difficult to follow. The following  
 is an attempt to study this problem in a simpler way  
 and to check the previous calculations.

If we take the velocity along the plate in the direction  
 of the flow uniform there and if we assume that the  
 plate is at a constant temperature the velocity of  
 motion at any point the simplified equation of  
 motion in the boundary layer is

$$\rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density,  $u$  the velocity,  $x$  and  $y$  are  
 variables.

The equation of continuity in this case is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\rho u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\rho v) = 0 \quad (2)$$

The third equation determines the energy balance  
 between heat received due to convection and  
 heat transfer by conduction and convection. In  
 some simplification as used in equation (1) we  
 can write

$$k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \bigg|_{x=0} = h(T_0 - T) \quad \text{and} \quad k \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \bigg|_{y=0} = \frac{h}{2} (T_0 - T) \quad \text{at } y=0$$

where  $h$  is the coefficient of heat transfer,  $k$  is the coefficient of heat conductivity. If we assume the Parabolic profile  $T = T_0 + u$ , we can be easily seen that with this assumption by putting the temperature  $T$  to be a certain parabolic function of  $y$  only. The real solution is

$$T = T_0 + \left( \frac{T_{w0} - T_0}{2} \right) \frac{y^2}{l^2} + \frac{h-1}{2} M^2 \frac{y^2}{l^2} \left( 1 - \frac{y^2}{l^2} \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $T_{w0}$  = temperature at the wall of the plate  
 $T_0$  = temperature of outside surface  
 $M$  = Biot number of outside face

We have then

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \bigg|_{y=0} = \frac{h}{2} \left( \frac{T_{w0} - T_0}{2} \right) \frac{y^2}{l^2} + \frac{h-1}{2} M^2 \frac{y^2}{l^2} \quad (2)$$

where the subscript "0" refers to the surface of plate.  $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \bigg|_{y=0}$  is the temperature gradient.

therefore  $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \bigg|_{y=0} = T_{w0} - T_0 + \frac{h-1}{2} M^2 \frac{y^2}{l^2}$  heat is transferred from the fluid to the wall of the plate  
 $\frac{h-1}{2} M^2 = \frac{T_{w0} - T_0}{2} \frac{h}{l^2}$  in heat transfer coefficient  
 all round of  $\frac{h-1}{2} M^2 = \frac{T_{w0} - T_0}{2} \frac{h}{l^2}$  is a constant

from the plate to the fluid for the wind case  
 the energy spent per unit mass  $\frac{U^2}{2}$  is  
 constant ~~over the whole~~ boundary layer  
 the relation between  $\rho$  and  $T$  is

$$\rho = \rho_0 \frac{T_0}{T} \quad \text{based on the hypothesis (16)}$$

for viscosity theoretical consideration leads to

$$\mu = \mu_0 \left( \frac{T}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (17)$$

But the following formula fits the actual data  
 better

$$\mu = \mu_0 \left( \frac{T}{T_0} \right)^{0.76} \quad (18)$$

Baummann<sup>11</sup> taking the limiting case where

$\frac{k-1}{2} M^2 = \frac{T_0}{T} - 1$  & using (1) found that for high  
 Mach number, the velocity profile is approximately  
 linear with the exception of the outside boundary of  
 the layer where it is nearly equal to  $U_{\infty}$  or  $U_{\infty}^2$   
 used this linear velocity profile <sup>and its</sup> integral relation  
 between friction & momentum; found that

$$C_f = \frac{\text{Frictional Force per unit width of plate}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho U_{\infty}^2 \text{ length of plate}}$$

$$= \sqrt{8 f(0)} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_0}{5 \mu_0}} \left[ 1 + \frac{k-1}{2} M^2 \right]^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$



If (Pa) is used, then

$$C_f = \sqrt{f f(\lambda)} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\rho \lambda^2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 \right]^{-0.12} \quad (10)$$

In both expressions  $\sqrt{f f(\lambda)}$  is found to have the following values.

Table 1.

M	0	1	2	5	10	$\infty$
$\sqrt{f f(\lambda)}$	116	120	125	139	150	157

It is evident that this set of values is more satisfactory for small values of  $\lambda$  than the values obtained from (11) which is more accurate for large values of  $\lambda$ . The value of  $\sqrt{f f(\lambda)}$  should be 1320. This result is included in Fig 3.

~~Table~~

To solve the problem more rigorously we have to resort to (1) & (2). By integrating the above equation & approx as

$$\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

1. In the case of a uniform flow, the velocity is constant and the pressure is constant. In the case of a non-uniform flow, the velocity is not constant and the pressure is not constant.

the equation of continuity is satisfied then  $\rho$  taken as independent variable is an unnecessary simplification of (1) as long as  $\rho$  is a function of  $x$  and  $y$ .

$$\frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial t^*} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} (\rho^* u^*) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^*} (\rho^* v^*), \quad (7)$$

$$\text{where } x^* = \frac{x}{L},$$

$$y^* = \frac{y}{L},$$

$$t^* = \frac{t}{L} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_0 \omega L}{\mu_0}} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{t}{L} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_0 \omega L}{\mu_0}}}\right\} \quad (9a)$$

$$S^* = \frac{S}{S_0}$$

$$\mu^* = \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}$$

and  $L$  is a characteristic length, say length of the plate.

(7) can be further simplified by introducing a new independent variable  $\tau = \frac{t}{\sqrt{\eta}}$  then

---

1. see book Simchen's in Hydrodynamik  
N.H. 1944 Vol VII. p 225, 1944

2. for simplicity the star will be dropped in following paragraphs

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_0} + \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \dots \quad (10)$$

Then we can start with the function  $f(u)$  and then turn functions of  $u$  by (16), (17) or (18), the right-hand side of (10) can be expressed in terms of  $u$ . If  $f(u)$ , we can put

$$u(f) = f(u)$$

Consequently 
$$u = C \int_{u_0}^f \frac{e^{-\int_{u_0}^f \frac{1}{f} ds}}{f} ds \quad (11)$$

where  $C$  is determined by the condition

$$\frac{1}{f} = \int_{u_0}^f \frac{e^{-\int_{u_0}^f \frac{1}{f} ds}}{f} ds \quad (12)$$

From the above we can make several calculations for the cases investigated, three calculations will usually give results close to the exact value. The next one for comparison.

Having obtained the function  $u(f)$ , we can then calculate the function  $f(u)$  by the relation

$$f(u) = u(f)$$

1. Sol

The following is a list of the  
 names of the persons who have  
 been admitted to the  
 membership of the  
 Society since the  
 last meeting of the  
 Executive Committee.  
 The names are given in  
 alphabetical order.  
 The names of the  
 persons who have been  
 admitted to the  
 membership of the  
 Society since the  
 last meeting of the  
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 persons who have been  
 admitted to the  
 membership of the  
 Society since the  
 last meeting of the  
 Executive Committee.  
 The names are given in  
 alphabetical order.

Also the skin friction can be computed by the momentum law,

$$\tau = \frac{\rho}{2} U^2 \frac{C_f}{Re}$$

For the case  $\frac{k}{2} M^2 = \frac{T_w}{T_0} - 1$ , ~~and~~ using  $\sqrt{Pr}$ , the velocity profile, temperature distribution & frictional drag coefficient are calculated for different values of mach number of outside flow. The results are shown in fig 2, fig 3 and fig 4. The velocity profiles for high speeds is very nearly a straight line but it can be seen that the wall temperature for greater mach number is very high. If the free stream temperature is  $40^\circ\text{F}$ , then the wall temperature will be  $1,600^\circ\text{F}$ ,  $3,620^\circ\text{F}$ ,  $6,540^\circ\text{F}$  or  $10,170^\circ\text{F}$  for mach number of 4, 6 & or 10. therefore it is without doubt that the law of viscosity as shown in (2a) will not hold. Also under such high temperature, the heat transfer due to radiation ~~is also~~ ~~is not~~ can not be neglected. Therefore the results shown here for extreme mach numbers are qualitative only.

The change in the constant  $4\pi k$  is appreciable, not great, a decrease from 1.328 for  $M=1$  to 1.05 for  $M=10$ , or about 20%. The variation in  $\mu$  for the range of  $M$  from 1 to 3 is much smaller. In any practical application, the internal drag for such a flow will be overshadowed by the large  $\mu$  <sup>drag of body</sup> ~~viscous resistance~~. Fig. 4 also shows that the linear distribution (10) approximates fairly the numerical calculation rather closely, ~~except~~ for very high Mach numbers.

9a

III,

In order to examine the conditions prevailing when a hot gas flows near cooled plate, we shall assume of adiabatic  $T_w = 0.25 T_0$  that  $T_w = 0.25 T_0$  ~~again using that we have~~ the results shown in Fig. 4. ~~right~~ ~~right~~ ~~these~~ we are showing the effect of high  $Pr$  - rather than  $Pr = 1$ . Since the wall temperature is kept at a constant value of  $T_w$  free stream temperature

~~is constant~~

22

the velocity of shell to be 1500 ft/sec,  
the time of flight is 1.52

Then the  
= 0.000099 Changing the shell  
(from 1500 ft/sec to 1000 ft/sec)  
in the maximum penetration, we have

$$t_p = 0.0005$$

the time of flight is  
1.52

Having

- 1) R. H. Kent. The Role of Model Experiment in Projectile Design  
Mechanical Engineering Vol. 54 p 641-646  
(1932)

5 feet, also can the altitude of plane be 10  
 50 km (31,000 feet), and velocity be 1000 ft/sec  
 If the density ratio at this altitude is 0.0012 &  
 temperature is 31°C. (deduced from data in section)  
 then the Reynolds number is  $1.1 \times 10^5$  but  
 as within the range of laminar boundary layer of  
 incompressible fluid, ~~the value~~ and skin friction  
 is 3.00 From Eq 4, the skin friction coefficient

$$C_f = 1.41 \times 10^{-4} = 0.000141$$

Changing into drag coefficient, we have

$$C_D = 0.0012$$

The drag coefficient due to wave formation from data  
 of experiment at this speed ratio is

$$C_{Dw} = 0.0012$$

Therefore ratio of wave friction to wave  
 resistance is now  $0.0012/0.0012 = 1.23$

From the above it is seen that the friction to wave  
 resistance ratio is 1.23, which is in very close  
 agreement with the data shown in section 4.



the drag of a body moving through a fluid

can be easily understood when one recalls

that the resistance of a body is due to

the friction of the fluid on its surface

$\propto v^{1.5}$

power to square of velocity

at very high velocities the

resistance is

therefore the ratio of skin friction to wave

resistance is decreasing with increase in velocity

at high kinematic viscosity the wave resistance

may even be a negative value

the total drag of the body

The first part of the work is a review of the various methods of determining the value of the coefficient of friction.

The second part of the work is a review of the various methods of determining the value of the coefficient of friction.

The third part of the work is a review of the various methods of determining the value of the coefficient of friction.

The fourth part of the work is a review of the various methods of determining the value of the coefficient of friction.

2000

For in the case of ductile material, the stress is very high, and the strain is very large. The stress-strain curve is shown in Fig. 11, which is that of a ductile material.

(10a) By consideration of the nature of the material, we have as equal to

$$\left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \epsilon}\right)_0 = \frac{1}{k} \frac{\sqrt{R}}{\sqrt{1+\epsilon}} \left(\frac{M_0}{M_0}\right) \frac{\sqrt{R}}{2} \quad (14)$$

By differentiation of equation (4) the relation between the slope and the normal gradient (can be obtained and very large) will be equal to

$$K = \frac{1}{2} \left(0.75 + \frac{k-1}{2} M^2\right) \sqrt{R} \quad (15)$$

Therefore the heat conducted away from the wall is through a strip of unit width and length of the wall is equal to

$$Q = \int_0^L \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)_0 dx = \frac{B h_w T_0 \sqrt{R}}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \epsilon}\right)_0 \quad (16)$$

or approximately

$$Q \approx B h_w T_0 \sqrt{R}$$

The value of  $K$  is given in Table II.

Table II

M	K
0	1.53
1	1.93
2	2.12
5	11.5
10	33.17

However the tangents at maximum occur at  
 a certain distance from the middle of the fourth layer  
~~the distance from the middle of the fourth layer~~  
~~the distance from the middle of the fourth layer~~  
~~the distance from the middle of the fourth layer~~  
 The best flow can be determined as follows  
 (the distance from the middle of the fourth layer)

The best transferred from the middle of the fourth layer  
 well can be calculated as follows.

✱ ————— page 10.

~~(The following general result can be used)~~

An interesting general ~~formula~~ <sup>surface</sup> relation between the heat transferred through the ~~surface~~ and the friction drag can be obtained under the assumption that Prandtl number - i.e. the ratio  $\frac{\lambda_0}{\mu_0}$  - is equal to unity. The same assumption

was used also in the previous calculations. It is remarkable that the relation holds also for ~~turbulent~~ <sup>laminar</sup> as well for laminar as for turbulent flow. ~~It follows from equation (12) immediately~~

The heat flow  $q$  per unit time and unit area <sup>(of the wall surface)</sup> is ~~equivalent~~  $q = \lambda_0 \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}$ ,

the <sup>frictional</sup> drag per unit area is ~~equal to~~  $\tau = \mu_0 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$  <sup>from (1)</sup>

Eq. (1) <sup>from (1)</sup> equation (4) the ratio  $\frac{q}{\tau}$  can be calculated and we obtain <sup>relation (14.5)</sup>

$$\frac{q}{\tau} = \frac{\lambda_0}{\mu_0} \frac{T_0}{u} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{u^2}{u_0^2} \right) + \frac{K-1}{2} \frac{u^2}{u_0^2} \right] \quad (17)$$

Since

In the case  $T_0 > T_w$  i.e. of a hot fluid is cooled by a colder surface the effect of compressibility is ~~the heat transferred through the wall~~. However it would be erroneous to conclude that integral this result as an "improvement" of cooling, ~~since~~, because at high speeds the heat produced on the boundary layer is of the same order as the heat transferred through the wall, and in order to determine the efficiency of the cooling a complete heat balance is to be considered. In this progress equation (17) ~~is not a~~ does not give sufficient information and the velocity and temperature distribution in the boundary layer must be computed. Such calculations were carried out for the particular assumption  $T_w = \frac{T_0}{2}$  i.e. for the particular case that the absolute temperature of the fluid is sometimes the absolute temperature of the wall. The resulting curve in Fig. 6 The ordinate gives heat transfer per unit area and unit length. The complete form of the curve is shown in Fig. 7. The "dissipation" curve represents the heat produced by friction per unit area and unit width of the plate, the lower curve the increase (or decrease) of the heat content per unit area and unit width.  $R$  denotes Reynolds number. It is seen that cooling takes place for  $M < 2.6$ . Beyond this limit more heat is produced by friction than the amount which can be transferred to the (hot) wall and the fluid acts as a matter of fact the fluid is heated.

The difference of the ordinates corresponds to the heat transferred through the wall.



## Boundary Layers in Compressible Fluids

By

H. von Kármán and H. S. Tsien

Summary

~~The significance of~~

Most part of this paper is concerned with the laminar boundary layer in compressible fluids. Its significance is ~~first pointed out~~ in practical applications <sup>in the introduction</sup>. ~~is first pointed out~~ in the first part of this paper. Then the general character of the ~~to~~ boundary layer along a flat plate is discussed, with ~~the help~~ <sup>with special notice to especially</sup> ~~special notice to especially~~.

the thermodynamical aspect of the problem. The first approximation to the ~~solution~~ <sup>calculation of skin friction</sup> of ~~equations~~ <sup>method of</sup> ~~of~~ <sup>well known as</sup> ~~developed~~ <sup>not developed</sup> by the senior author is then ~~concluded~~ <sup>briefly explained</sup>. Then ~~the~~ <sup>a</sup> more rigorous solution is ~~obtained~~ <sup>Due to the</sup> unsatisfactory result of this method for low Mach's number a more rigorous solution using <sup>method of</sup> successive approximations is ~~obtained~~ <sup>developed</sup>, and <sup>the results of</sup> calculations for the case of <sup>an</sup> insulated plate in a high speed flow are shown. The ~~results calculated~~ <sup>the</sup> effect of compressibility on skin friction is appreciable but not very large, however the velocity ~~distribution~~ <sup>(back page)</sup>.



The ~~results~~ ~~and~~ calculated skin friction coefficients ~~are then~~  
friction coefficient ~~are then~~ <sup>used</sup> applied to the ~~case of~~ a  
find the drag of a projectile and a rocket wingless  
rounding rocket ~~as examples~~. The importance of  
~~skin~~ skin friction in high speed flight at very  
rarefied air is thus clearly brought out

In the second part of this paper the problem  
of heat transfer to or from the ~~surface~~ <sup>wall of a</sup> plate is ~~discussed~~ studied  
in detail. Results of calculations for the case of  
flat plate cooled to ~~a temperature~~ of a temperature  
of ~~the~~ ~~free~~ stream are shown. The velocity  
profile & temperature distributions differ appreciably from  
the case of insulated plate, & skin friction is higher.  
The <sup>heat</sup> heat transfer ~~is~~ ~~calculated~~ ~~showing~~  
the ~~rate~~ increases <sup>rapidly</sup> ~~with~~ <sup>with speed</sup> in case of cooled  
plate. However, due to <sup>fact that</sup> the simultaneous increase  
in viscous dissipation is even higher, so for <sup>high</sup> Mach  
a large amount of <sup>gas</sup> number the heat remains in the fluid, & ~~the~~  
the fluid is heated instead of being cooled. In  
similar radiation situation arises in the case of a  
radiator. At high Mach number, the boundary  
layer is heated up to such an extent that  
the radiator is no longer being cooled. An <sup>example</sup>  
with condition similar to ~~that of a~~ ~~radiation~~ ~~cooling~~ <sup>back flow</sup>

the heat balance is calculated  
for the case of cooled plate  
temperature  $T_w$  &  $T_\infty$   
free stream

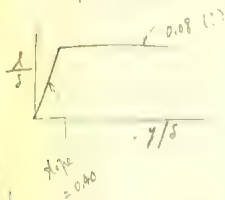
# Plan of study of Boundary layer i.e. p. 26.1 (1)

(I) Laminar Boundary Layer over Hot plate  
 Solution of the Boundary layer equation by  
 numerical integration for all cases of  $(T_w - T_\infty)$

(II) Calculation of Critical Reynolds No.

(III) Solve the Turbulent boundary layer equation, by  
 using the equation

$$\rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ \eta \left( 1 + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right]$$



(IV) Study of turbulent boundary layer in pipe.

(2)

with pressure gradient

$$\begin{cases} \rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (c_p T) + \rho v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = 0 \end{cases}$$

The energy equation

$$\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (c_p T) + \rho v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( k \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right)$$

also the left side of

$$c_p = c_v + R = c_v + \frac{k}{\rho T} \quad c_p T = c_v T + \frac{k}{\rho}$$

$$\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (c_p T) = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( c_v T + \frac{k}{\rho} \right) = \rho c_v u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{k}{\rho} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{k}{\rho} \right) + \rho c_v u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$

$$\rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (c_p T) = \rho c_v u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + u \frac{\partial k}{\partial x} - \frac{k}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x}$$

$$\rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (c_p T) + \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (c_p T) = u \frac{\partial k}{\partial x}$$

$$= \rho u \left[ u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right] \left( \frac{k}{\rho} \right) = \frac{1}{\rho} \left( u \frac{\partial k}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial k}{\partial y} \right)$$

due to  $\frac{\partial k}{\partial y} \rightarrow 0$ . also by continuity,

$$u \frac{\partial k}{\partial x} = - \left[ u \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} \right] \frac{k}{\rho} = \rho \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right] \frac{k}{\rho}$$

the left side of energy equation

$$= \rho c_p \left[ u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right] + \rho \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right] \frac{k}{\rho} \quad \text{C.F.}$$

Assume  $\mu = c_p \mu$ , and  $c_p T = f(u)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \cdot f(u) - u \frac{\partial k}{\partial x} &= \rho \left( u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f(u) \\ &+ \mu \left[ f'(u) + 1 \right] \cdot \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

12. 设  $f(0) = -1$ , and  $f'(u) = -u$  (3)

$$9u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + 10u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (10u \frac{\partial u}{\partial y})$$

13. 设  $f(u) = -u$ .

14.

$$f(u) = -u.$$

$$f(u) = c_p T = -\frac{1}{2} u^2 + A$$

When

$$u=0, \quad T = T_w, \quad \text{so} \quad c_p T_w = A, \quad \text{or}$$

$$T = -\frac{1}{2c_p} u^2 + T_w = T_w - \frac{u^2}{2c_p} = T_0 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{u}{a_1} \right)^2$$

When

$$u=U, \quad T_0 = -\frac{1}{2c_p} U^2 + T_w$$

$$(T_w - T_0) = \frac{U^2}{2c_p}$$



Under pressure:  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial r} = 0$ 

(7)

$$\rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\text{Key: } \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} - \frac{u}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \quad \text{for } u \ll r$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial r} \rightarrow 0, \quad \rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \mu \left( u \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} \right) \right]$$

At outside flow, Bernoulli equation is satisfied, so

$$U \frac{\partial U}{\partial n} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p}{\partial n} \quad \text{where } \rho_0 = \rho \text{ at outer edge of boundary layer}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} = -\frac{\rho_0}{2} \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial n}, \quad \text{so}$$

$$\frac{\rho}{2} \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial n} - \frac{\rho_0}{2} \frac{\partial U^2}{\partial n} = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \mu \left( u \frac{\partial u^2}{\partial r} \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left( \frac{\rho}{2} u^2 - \frac{\rho_0}{2} U^2 \right) - \frac{u^2}{2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \mu \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \frac{\rho}{2} u^2 - \frac{\rho_0}{2} U^2 \right] - \frac{u^2}{2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right) \right]$$

Let  $x = \frac{\rho}{2} u^2 - \frac{\rho_0}{2} U^2$ , we have, letting

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial n} - \rho_0 U \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

$$\rho_0 U \frac{\partial x}{\partial n} - \frac{u^2}{2} \rho_0 U \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = \rho u \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \mu \left\{ \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} - \frac{u^2}{2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right\} \right]$$

$$\text{or } \frac{\partial x}{\partial n} - \frac{u^2}{2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = \frac{\rho u}{\rho_0 U} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ \mu \left\{ \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} - \frac{u^2}{2} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right\} \right]$$

## 1.1.2

### Kármán—钱近似

#### 1.1.2.1

#### Two - Dimensional Subsonic Flow of Compressible Fluids

#### 可压缩流体的二维亚声速流动

这是发表于1939年的“Two - Dimensional Subsonic Flow of Compressible Fluids”（可压缩流体的二维亚声速流动）一文的部分手稿，共有17页。这一工作是作者博士论文的一部分。

在提高飞机飞行速度的努力中，在机翼的空气动力学设计中，计算翼面的压力分布遇到了困难。对于平面超声速流动，可以采用已有的特征线法计算机翼上的压力分布；可是当飞行速度低于声速的时候，已有的方法只能计算机翼很薄或速度较低的情况。

1902年，俄国的S. A. Chaplygin（查普雷金）在他的博士论文中对定常位势流动方程作了一个变换，将自变量从物理平面 $(x, y)$ 变换到速度平面 $(q, \theta)$ ，称为速度图法，把原来的非线性的方程化为线性方程。作为近似，他又建议将等熵关系曲线用它的切线来代替，进一步简化了方程。后来，Demichenko（丹姆千科）（1932）和Busemann（布兹曼）（1933）用了驻点处的切线作了近似计算，可惜只适用于飞行速度小于0.5倍声速的情况。

Theodore von Kármán（冯·卡门）凭着对物理问题的洞察力，建议作者在求解由速度图变换得到的线性方程时，用来流状态处的切线作近似，结果可能更好。钱学森证明，虽然同样是切线近似，采用Kármán—钱所用的来流状态处的切线近似，可以计算高亚声速的流动，而且得到很精确的计算结果。原因在于：在流场的大部分区域，

流速和声速的数值更接近于来流的数值，而不是接近于驻点处的数值。在第二次世界大战期间以及战后一个相当长的时期，在现代计算手段——电子计算机出现以前，作者这一近似计算方法被广泛应用于飞机翼型的设计，且被人们称为“Kármán—钱近似”方法。

(1)

Continuity

Consider a fluid flowing in a pipe of varying cross-section. Let the fluid have a velocity  $v$  and a cross-sectional area  $A$  at a point. The mass of fluid passing through this point in time  $t$  is  $\rho A v t$ , where  $\rho$  is the density. This mass must be equal to the mass of fluid passing through any other point in the pipe in the same time  $t$ , since the fluid is continuous and no mass is lost or gained. Therefore, the product of the cross-sectional area and the velocity is constant throughout the pipe, i.e.,  $A v = \text{constant}$ . This is the equation of continuity.

introduced by conduction and heat developed by combustion in the fluid, must be excluded. Therefore we assume that the relation between the pressure  $p$  and the density  $\rho$  is definite & single-valued.

In such a nonviscous homogeneous compressible fluid, the Lagrange's theorem, i.e., the fluid without rotation is always without rotation, also holds as in the case of an incompressible fluid.

This theorem only holds when the flow is continuous. In flow with supersonic velocity, there is discontinuous motion with irreversible process of definite raise in entropy. Here the homogeneity is disturbed, & the



Let us consider a system of particles in a conservative force field. The total energy of the system is constant. The force field is conservative, so the work done by the forces in moving a particle from one point to another is independent of the path. The total energy of the system is the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energy. The kinetic energy is given by  $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$  and the potential energy is given by  $U$ . The total energy is given by  $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + U$ . The total energy is constant, so  $\frac{dE}{dt} = 0$ . This gives us the equation of motion.

(I)  $\nabla = \text{grad } \phi.$

In its components, we have

(a)  $u = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, \quad v = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}, \quad w = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}.$

For each component of the homogeneous system, the equation  $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$  holds.

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = f(x, y, z),$$

where  $f(x, y, z)$  is a function of the coordinates.

$U$  = the force function, in case of gravitational

for a given value of  $p$  in the domain of  $f$ ,  $f(p)$  is a fixed number. If  $f$  is a function of  $p$ , then  $f(p)$  is a function of  $p$ . The function  $f$  is said to be a function of  $p$  if it is a function of  $p$ .

Let  $f$  be a function of  $p$ . Then  $f(p)$  is a function of  $p$ . The function  $f$  is said to be a function of  $p$  if it is a function of  $p$ .

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$$(4) \quad \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} + \frac{c^2}{r} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} = 0$$

The combination of (3a) & (4) give

$$(5) \quad \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \Delta \Phi.$$

It is a wave differential equation of acoustic wave. The velocity of the motion is the same as the velocity of sound.

$$(6) \quad \Phi = A \cos(kr - \omega t).$$

The pressure of the motion is the same as the pressure of sound. The velocity of the motion is the same as the velocity of sound.

$$(7) \quad \Phi = A \cos(kr - \omega t).$$

The pressure of the motion is the same as the pressure of sound.

The velocity of the motion is the same as the velocity of sound.

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The velocity of the motion is the same as the velocity of sound.

$$(8) \quad \Phi = \int \frac{A}{\sqrt{(ct-3)^2 + r^2}}.$$

The meaning of the velocity  $c$  as the velocity of sound is evident from these solutions. We call this velocity, which from above consideration is also a

constant, as the velocity of sound. It is obvious that we take the velocity  $c$  as a constant in the above

[illegible]

## 2. Steady Potential Flow

In the incompressible case,  $\rho$  is constant and the continuity equation (1) reduces to  $\text{div } W = 0$ . If the flow is irrotational, we can introduce a scalar potential  $\phi$  such that  $W = \text{grad } \phi$ . In this case, the velocity potential  $\phi$  satisfies Laplace's equation,  $\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ . If the flow is steady, we can write the Bernoulli equation in the form

$$(2b) \quad \frac{W^2}{2} + P(\phi) = \text{constant}$$

$$\text{and } (3b) \quad \text{div } W + \frac{1}{\rho} W \cdot \text{grad } \rho = 0.$$

$$\text{But } \frac{1}{\rho} \text{grad } \rho = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{d\phi} \text{grad } \phi = \frac{1}{\rho} \text{grad } P$$

and grad  $P$  obtained from (2b). Then we have

$$(9) \quad \text{div } W - \frac{1}{c^2} W \cdot \text{grad } \frac{W^2}{2} = 0.$$

Let us now express this equation in terms of the velocity components  $u, v, w$ .

Since  $W = \text{grad } \phi$ , we have

$$W \cdot \text{grad } \frac{W^2}{2} = W \cdot \text{grad } (W \cdot W) = u^2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v^2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + w^2 \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (u^3) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (v^3) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (w^3)$$

Then equation (9) becomes, with this coordinate,

$$(9a) \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \left(1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}\right) + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \left(1 - \frac{w^2}{c^2}\right) - \frac{2}{c^2} \left( u w \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + v w \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + u v \frac{\partial u}{\partial v} \right) = 0.$$

(In the equation we have used one of the conditions that the wave is a plane wave, so  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = 0$ .)

In the next section we shall see that when the velocity of the wave is small compared with the speed of light, then the equation will be reduced to  $\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = 0$  or  $\nabla^2 \psi = 0$ . When the constant velocity is not so small compared with the speed of light as to be neglected, but smaller than the speed of light, then although the quantities  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z}$  may be the same as before, the wave velocity is of the same order as the speed of light, we can still choose our coordinate system so that the wave velocity is in the direction of the  $x$ -axis, so only a large increase in the order of the terms in the equation will be required with respect to  $x$  as the equation reduces to

$$(11) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( 1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = 0.$$

Now if  $u$  is a constant then the equation reduces to  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = 0$ . If  $u$  is not a constant, it can be easily shown that the equation will be of the form  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = f(x)$  if  $u^2 < c^2$ , and of the form  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = f(x) + g(x) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$  if  $u^2 > c^2$ .



1.  $\frac{d}{dt}$  is negative. The differential equation is of hyperbolic type. We have that a equation of elliptic type always give solutions that are regular within the region, while a equation of hyperbolic type will give a discontinuous solution in the region. We can find an equation that is valid along the characteristics of the differential equation. The general solution of the wave equation can be obtained directly in the case of the simplicity of a wave in the homogeneous field  $\phi = \frac{1}{2} \left( f(x+ct) + f(x-ct) \right)$ .

The problem is to find the solution of the wave equation in a region bounded by a surface. The problem is a problem of boundary value. The function  $\phi$  is continuous of one side in the boundary and from the other side we want a discontinuity  $\phi_1$  can be used. To find the simplicity of the wave equation we can refer to equation (1) that the wave equation is satisfied in the region itself and on the boundary  $\phi = \phi_1$ . We then consider a wave of disturbance  $f$  propagate along all directions. We can find the potential of such a wave by adding a function  $f$  to  $\phi$ , (2), which only in a short interval is different from  $\phi$  beyond the interval is vanished.



the process of it is not a continuous process  
 actually it is a discrete process. We can then assume a continuous process  
 of the state of the system at the time of the explosion  
 since now we are dealing the propagation of sound,  
 we can use eqn. (5), and due to the linearity of  
 the system, the total potential of each explosion wave  
 is the sum of the potentials of each explosion wave.  
 The superposition of the potentials of each explosion wave  
 is the total potential of the system at the time of the  
 explosion. Then we have the form

$$q = \frac{A}{1 + \frac{A}{c} \frac{1}{\rho}}$$

where  $c$  is the speed of sound,  $\rho$  is the density of the medium.  
 The total potential of the system is the sum of the potentials of each explosion wave.  
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$$q = \frac{A}{1 + \frac{A}{c} \frac{1}{\rho}}$$



## 3. Flow with surface velocity — linearized theory. (12)

the solution of the equation (10a). For every case of surface velocity, we can solve the equation like the case of incompressible fluid, where

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = 0,$$

and connect them by the relation

$$(13) \quad \xi = x, \quad \eta = y \sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}, \quad \zeta = z \sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}$$

As with the corresponding points of this two space, we have the same potential. (14) Of course, we should remember

that the relative velocity from the potential should be small in comparison with the ground velocity  $u$ .

Therefore this solution cannot be applied to flow with

"finite" surface velocity. When the velocity is finite, we

edge, this method should give accurate results

method. The slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{v}{u} \approx \frac{1}{u} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}$

into the wall of body, and the ...  
 ...

of particles in the ...

We can, of course, say that the particles in the  
 ... of 2 space ... by ...  
 ... If we ... the ...

$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dt}$  is the ... & slope of ...  
 coincide each other. The difference in ...  
 then ... the ... of  
 separation is ...



Taylor's Electrical Analogy

the vector is first directed to the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  and then to the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{b}$ . Therefore the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  must be represented by a perfect vector in the direction of  $\mathbf{a}$ .

The procedure is as follows: the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  is first directed to the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  and then to the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{b}$ . The value of  $\mathbf{c}$  is found by the relation  $\mathbf{c}^2 = (\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{a}})^2 + (\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{b}})^2$ , or we can use the relation  $\mathbf{c} = \sqrt{(\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{a}})^2 + (\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{b}})^2}$  to find out the value of  $\mathbf{c}$ , when  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are given.

where  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}_0$ , &  $\mathbf{b} = 1.40$ . Knowing this ratio we can find the ratio of the components of the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  and a more accurate value of  $\mathbf{c}$ .

The vector of the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  is given by

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{a}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{a}_0} = -\frac{1}{\mathbf{a}} \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \right) \quad (10)$$

The vector of the vector  $\mathbf{c}$  is given by

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{b}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{b}_0} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{y}}$$

So the difference between the values of  $\mathbf{c}$  and the value of  $\mathbf{c}$  is given by the relation

Due to the presence of the magnetic field, the single value function is when the flow is to be approximate, the electrical stream function will be multi-valued one.

In case of sup & by analogy (E), the power is present for  $v/v_0 < 0.50$ , & beyond, the power is zero. The condition is that the highest velocity in the field exceeds the local sound velocity.



### 1.1.2.2

#### 高速气流突变之测定

这是发表于1941年的“高速气流突变之测定”(A Method for Predicting the Compressibility Burble)一文的部分手稿以及计算图表,共有13页。

1940年由于王助的推荐,作者成为成都航空研究所的通讯研究员,写了这篇专论,形成该所的第二号研究报告。

当飞行速度逐渐增加到某一“临界速度”时,气流会发生突然的变化。这时,气流中某些地方的流速达到局部声速,导致飞行体所受的阻力骤然大增。可见,求取临界速度对于高速飞机的设计甚为重要。这一临界速度固然可以用风洞试验去实测,但耗资巨大;更方便的是用作者1939年发表的计算高亚声速流动的近似方法通过计算来解决。

这篇文章的第1部分首先介绍了该近似算法。第2部分应用该法计算了圆柱绕流问题的临界速度,并和用摄动法算得的结果做了比较。作者发现,要将这一算法应用于实际问题时,原则上需要对飞行体(如机翼)的形状做出修正。这项工作的计算量一般是很大的。作者为了寻求简化计算的途径,在第3部分专门就此问题做了分析,说明即使不作形状修正也不至于带来显著的误差。接着,作者对圆柱绕流问题重新做了简化计算,并将计算和实验数据做了对比,发现两者相当一致,从而说明简化方法是成功的。



Hence it is desirable to have a reliable method to ~~avoid the~~ <sup>calculate</sup> ~~find~~ the critical speed. ~~of a body~~ <sup>with</sup> ~~theoretically~~ or from experimental data obtained from an analysis for flow around them.

The calculation of the critical speed of a body requires of course the solution of the ~~the problem of~~ <sup>the problem of</sup> ~~flow over a~~ <sup>the body</sup> ~~body~~ <sup>the methods derived for the purpose</sup> as

- 1) Prandtl-Glauert ~~the~~ method
- 2) Potentiation ~~the~~ method

and 3) Holograph method

The theory of Prandtl-Glauert is based on the assumption that the disturbance produced by the body <sup>placed in</sup> a parallel flow is small. They are then able to linearize the partial differential equations for the velocity potential and obtain a very simple solution. ~~Unfortunately~~ <sup>It is</sup> evident that the theory can be applied only to a very thin airfoil or very slender body, because only then the disturbance produced by the body is small. But even for this case, the theory breaks down for points near ~~the~~ the stagnation point. In bodies which are generally seen in aircraft engineering, this method gives a higher critical speed than that experimentally observed. In other words the Prandtl-Glauert ~~with~~ <sup>is</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>not</sup> conservative method.

The potentiation ~~theory~~ is developed by Lind, Rayleigh, P. Langevin, Poggi, and others. It consists essentially of expanding the velocity potential into a series of ascending powers of  $M^2$  where  $M^2$  = ratio of the velocity of undisturbed parallel flow to the velocity of sound at ~~the state of~~ in the parallel flow.  $M^2$  is  $u^2/c^2$  called the Mach number. The method is theoretically exact, if ~~however~~ <sup>the</sup> convergence of the series can be established. However, the practical calculation is very involved even for simple shaped body if ~~the~~ one goes beyond the first approx. value (i.e.  $M^2$  term).



~~$$\frac{1}{2} u^2 + \int \frac{p}{\rho} = \text{constant}$$~~

$$\frac{1}{2} u^2 + \int \frac{p}{\rho} = \text{constant.} \quad (6)$$

The eqn (6) is a special case of the general eqn (5) for 5 unknowns  $u, p, \rho, T, \dots$  where  $T$  is the temperature of the fluid. Therefore for complete solution of the problem no more equations are necessary. The two equations are the equation of state and the first and the equation of ~~total~~ <sup>total</sup> energy of the fluid. In perfect gas the equation of state is

$$\frac{p}{\rho} = RT \quad (6)$$

where  $R$  is the gas constant. ~~If no heat is added or subtracted~~ <sup>if no heat is added or subtracted</sup> ~~from the fluid in the whole of the field~~ <sup>from the fluid in the whole of the field</sup> then the ~~first~~ <sup>second</sup> condition is constant total energy is expressed by the adiabatic law

$$\frac{p}{\rho^\gamma} = \text{constant} \quad (7)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the ratio of specific heat of the fluid at constant pressure  $C_p$  and that at constant volume  $C_v$ . In other words

$$\gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_v} \quad (8)$$

The value of  $\gamma$  for diatomic gas <sup>such as air</sup> is about 1.4

therefore the third problem will be solved completely by Eqs (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), (7) or (8) and (9) which

Eqn (2), (4), (6), (7) and (9) ~~are~~ <sup>are</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~flow around~~ <sup>the flow around</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~body~~ <sup>body</sup>. Now suppose, a solution of this system of equation is found for a certain body. Then the question arises whether this known solution can be utilized to construct another solution which satisfies the same type of differential equation as the first one but different values of  $u, p, \rho, T, \dots$  ~~different values of~~ <sup>different values of</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~different~~ <sup>different</sup> ~~equation of state & energy~~ <sup>equation of state & energy</sup> ~~is~~ <sup>is</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~difference~~ <sup>difference</sup> ~~in the equation of state & energy~~ <sup>in the equation of state & energy</sup> ~~means~~ <sup>means</sup> ~~the difference in the properties~~ <sup>the difference in the properties</sup> ~~of the fluids in the two solutions~~ <sup>of the fluids in the two solutions</sup>. ~~The answer to the question is affirmative~~ <sup>The answer to the question is affirmative</sup>. So here there two new functions  $x, y, z, \dots$  will be introduced such that



complex coordinate  $z$  with the center of the circle located at the origin of the  $z$ -plane  $(1j, 1)$   
Hence

$$G(z) = z^2 + \frac{b^2}{z}$$

$$\bar{G}(\bar{z}) = \bar{z}^2 + \frac{b^2}{\bar{z}}$$

where  $b$  is the radius of the circle in the  $z$ -plane. The center of the circle, which is the origin of the  $z$ -plane, is at the origin of the  $z$ -plane. The function  $G(z)$  is analytic in the  $z$ -plane.

$$\bar{z} = z + \frac{1}{z}$$

It is convenient to carry out the computations by using the  $z$ -coordinate. Hence  $G(z)$  can be written as

$$\bar{z} = z - \frac{H^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - H^2})} \cdot \frac{(1 + \frac{1}{z})^2}{(\frac{1}{z})^2} dz \quad (154)$$

Substituting  $\bar{z} = z + \frac{1}{z}$  into  $G(z)$ , the complex coordinate  $z$  in the  $z$ -plane is written as

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z} &= z - \frac{H^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - H^2})^2} \int \left(1 + \frac{1}{z^2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{z^2}} dz \\ &= (1 + \frac{1}{z^2}) \frac{H^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - H^2})^2} \left\{ \bar{z} + \frac{b^2}{z} + \frac{1}{2} (b^2 - 1) \log \frac{\bar{z} - 1}{z - 1} \right\} \quad (155) \end{aligned}$$

In order to find the definition of the shape of the original elliptical section  $z = be^{i\theta}$ ,  $\bar{z} = be^{-i\theta}$  (156)

Substituting  $\bar{z} = be^{-i\theta}$  into (155) and separating real and imaginary parts

$$\begin{aligned} X &= b + \frac{1}{b} \cos \theta - \frac{H^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - H^2})^2} \left[ b(1 + \frac{1}{b^2}) \cos \theta - \frac{(b^2 - 1)^2}{4} \log \frac{1 + \frac{1}{b^2} - \cos \theta}{1 - \frac{1}{b^2} - \cos \theta} \right] \\ Y &= b(1 + \frac{1}{b^2}) \sin \theta - \frac{H^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - H^2})^2} \left[ b(1 + \frac{1}{b^2}) \sin \theta - \frac{(b^2 - 1)^2}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{2b \sin \theta}{b^2 - 1} \right] \quad (157) \end{aligned}$$

By setting  $\beta = 0$  and  $\xi$  is the first + <sup>excess in entropy</sup> second special of  $\eta$ , (54) respectively, the  
to calculate the shockwave ratio of the system in compressible flow

major & minor axis of the approximately elliptic section are compressible flow are obtained. In a constant rate the ratio is equal to 1 (How  
the ratio of the minor axis to the major axis is equal to the thickness ratio of the section.)

$$f = \frac{b^2-1}{b^2+1} \cdot \frac{10 \left( \frac{b^2-1}{b^2+1} \right)^2 \left\{ \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{b \left( \frac{b^2-1}{b^2+1} \right)}{2} \log \frac{b-1}{b+1} \right\}}{1 - \frac{b^2}{(b^2+1)^2} \left\{ b^2 - \frac{b(b^2-1)}{2} \left( \frac{b^2-1}{b^2+1} \right) \log \frac{b-1}{b+1} \right\}} \quad (58)$$

In a given ~~number~~ <sup>the</sup> reach number  $H$ , of the parallel stream the value of  $t$  can be solved numerically. In example, for  $H = 0.400$ ,  $t$  is found to be

When the value of  $t$  is thus determined, the detailed shape of the seat in conical flow can be calculated. <sup>From Fig. 11</sup> ~~It is shown~~ <sup>that</sup> the true circular seat desired in the case  $M_0 = 0.400$ , the section obtained by the transformation ~~from conical flow~~ <sup>is shown</sup> in fully Table, where ~~it is shown~~ <sup>that</sup>  $t = 5.737$  ~~to conical flow~~ <sup>is shown</sup> ~~is shown~~ <sup>is shown</sup> in fully Table, where

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2; \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$$

5	1	6
---	---	---

If the vote in component were true circle, then  $\rho$  should be a constant. The  
monotonicity of  $\rho$  as  $\phi$  above tells us only 80% <sup>the variation is, indeed, as expected</sup>  
<sup>The velocity & frequency are the parameters which can be considered as that with a time varying rate</sup> therefore discrete over the particular vote may be considered to that over a time interval.  
a calculation



where the Rayleigh  $\xi = 1.7$  in Eq. (15) the coordinate of a point on the along the extension the harmonic series of gravity can be obtained as

$$Y = \left( \gamma - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) - D \left[ \gamma \left( \frac{b^4}{\gamma^2} - 1 \right) - \frac{1}{2} (b^2 - 1)^2 \tan^{-1} \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma^2 - 1} \right] \quad (17)$$

the corresponding velocity over the <sup>at the infinity point</sup> depression shown in figure 16.

$$\frac{\frac{dG}{dY}}{\frac{dY}{dX}} = \frac{\gamma^2 b^2}{\gamma^2 + 1} \quad (18)$$

Hence the <sup>velocity</sup> ~~over the section~~ in the compressible flow is can be calculated by means Eq. (18), and expressed as

$$\frac{W}{W_1} = \frac{\gamma^2 b^2}{\gamma^2 + 1} \frac{1 - \frac{M_1^2}{(1 + \gamma - \gamma^2)^2}}{1 - \frac{M_1^2}{(1 + \gamma - \gamma^2)^2} \left( \frac{\gamma^2 b^2}{\gamma^2} \right)^2} \quad (19)$$

The results of this calculation for the case  $M_1 = 1.000$  using the previous determined <sup>AN</sup> value of  $b = 1.137$  is shown in fig. 17. The ordinate is the increase in velocity due to compressibility divided by the ~~undisturbed~~ velocity  $M_1$  of the parallel ~~in~~ stream. The abscissa is the ratio ratio of the distance  $Y$  from the point concerned to the center of the circular section ~~flow~~ and the radius of the section,  $R$ .

According to Lord Rayleigh (1907) page 10 the perturbation method gives as first approximation

$$\frac{\Delta W}{W_1} = \left\{ \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^4 + \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^6 \right\} M_1^2 \quad (20)$$

which is independent upon the ratio of specific heats  $\gamma$

The second approximation of perturbation method is carried out by J. Isaac, A. Tomadon & Y. Saito (1953)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta W}{W_1} = & \left\{ \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^4 + \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^6 \right\} M_1^2 + (\gamma - 1) \left\{ \frac{17}{60} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^2 + \frac{19}{50} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^4 - \frac{1}{5} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^6 + \frac{1}{60} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^8 + \frac{1}{60} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^{10} \right\} M_1^4 \\ & + \left\{ \frac{17}{80} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^2 - \frac{17}{24} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^4 - \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^6 + \frac{1}{60} \left( \frac{Y}{R} \right)^{10} \right\} M_1^6 \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$





independent  $\Rightarrow$   $r = 0$  if can be bounded as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + \frac{y}{x^2}$$

Measure the volatility in temperature from 0 to 100

$$\frac{H_1}{H_2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - H_2^2}} \quad \frac{H_1}{H_2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - H_2^2}}$$

representing  $\mathbf{p}$  as  $\mathbf{p} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \end{pmatrix}$  the coordinates of  $\mathbf{p}$  are represented then as  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . The coordinates of the second point are  $p_1'$  and  $p_2'$ .

$$\frac{z}{z_0} = 1 - \frac{M_1^2}{(1 + \sqrt{1 - M_1^2})^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{3 \frac{1}{2}^2} \right) \quad (66)$$

[illegible]

1871

to the uniform flow it found to be

$$b\left(1 - \frac{2}{3}h\right) = a - \quad (69)$$

1930. The true m. value of the temperature used as a standard of 1.00, is  
 better 2.0 5.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 the first measurement cannot be a standard

$$V = (1/2) \cdot \frac{H^2}{\pi^2 \cdot 10^{-2}} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2/2}{9} - \frac{1/4}{3/4} \right)$$

Quia:  $\frac{1}{2}$  de mltis dimittit, sine de mltis me t am mltis  
 Quia:  $\frac{1}{2}$  de mltis dimittit, sine de mltis me t am mltis

The ... ..  
 ... ..  
 ... ..

... of the ... and ... that ...  
 of ... and ...  
 ... the ...  
 ... in the ... that the ...  
 ... used in ... the ...  
 the ... will be ...  
 the ... and the ... will be much less than the  
 ... Therefore, the ...  
 ...  
 ...

Similarly, ~~that~~ if the velocity and the pressure distribution over a body is  
 known at one ~~velocity~~ <sup>velocity</sup> and the ...  
 over the same body at ~~any~~ <sup>high</sup> speeds can be calculated by means of Eq. (20)  
 ...  
 ...  
 ...  
 ... change in Mach's number, ... It is interesting to notice that Eq. (20)  
 reduces to the relation of Prandtl

$$C_p = \frac{C_{p0}}{\sqrt{1-M^2}} \quad (21)$$

if  $\gamma$  ... and ...  
 the present method gives larger ... due to compressibility than the  
 Prandtl method.

...  
 ...  
 ...  
 ...  
 ...



### 1.1.3

## Superaerodynamics -- Mechanics of Rarefied Gases

## 超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学

这是发表于1946年“Superaerodynamics -- Mechanics of Rarefied Gases”（超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学）文的部分手稿，包括初稿的一部分，以及关于低密度和自由分子流的推导和算表等，共有14页。

超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学（Superaerodynamics）这个学科最早是由Zahn提出来的，他在1934年发表了一篇论文，讨论有关高度稀薄气体的动力学问题。限于当时喷气技术的水平，要在那么高的高空飞行几乎是不可能的，所以超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学（Superaerodynamics）只是一个纯学术研究的课题，并无实际的工程意义。到了40年代中期，作者考虑到喷气推进技术已经有了长足的进步，飞机的飞行不应受到高度的限制。远程喷气飞机（rocket airplane）的最优飞行高度估计在100km左右，那里的空气已经非常稀薄，不能当作常规流体力学中的连续介质看待，必须运用超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学（Superaerodynamics）的概念和方法来指导飞机的设计。除了高空远航以外，超级空气动力学——稀薄气体力学（Superaerodynamics）的知识还可应用到很多涉及低密度的工业过程，例如用于蒸馏和其他化工作业的高真空泵的设计。作者写了这篇论文，来讨论这一流体力学新分支的基本概念和说明某些已经得到的结果，以便引起大家的重视，推动这一流体力学分支的发展。后来，“Superaerodynamics”（超级空气动力学）一词很少有人采用，人们普遍采用“Mechanics of Rarefied Gases”（稀薄气体力学）一词。

作者在这篇文章中首先介绍了分子运动平均自由程 $\lambda$ 的概念，并用 $\lambda$ 与物体的特征长度 $L$ （或边界层厚度 $\delta$ ）之比 $\lambda/L$ （或 $\lambda/\delta$ ）形成一个无量纲常数，在由马赫数 $M$ 和雷诺数 $Re$ 构成的平面上，以 $\lambda/\delta$ 为指标把该平面划分为四个区域，即：自由分子流区、过渡区（其特征是分子间的碰撞和分











where  $\gamma$  is the ratio of specific heats. From Eq. (1) and (2) the mean free path is given in terms of the kinematic viscosity  $\nu = \mu/\rho$  and the velocity of sound  $a$  by

$$l = 1.355 \sqrt{\gamma} \frac{\nu}{a} \quad (13)$$

For air the quantity  $(1/\sqrt{\gamma})$  varies from 0.7 to 1.0 as the pressure and standard temperature  $t$  are varied respectively. (See Table 1 for ordinary conditions.) The mean free path is also related to  $\nu$  and  $a$  with the two dimensions and therefore nondimensional is constant for any gas at a given  $t$ . However at very high altitudes where the pressure is very low as well as that of the pressure  $p$  the mean free path  $l$  will be considerable and the mean free path calculated by Eq. (13) is 3.6 times against the actual. At 50 miles altitude the mean free path is nearly 1 inch. It may be <sup>there</sup> certainly not a constant.

The air molecules have generally three kinds of energy: kinetic, translational energy, the rotational energy, and the vibrational energy. When the gas is at an equilibrium the distribution of the energy is as follows: the translational energy is determined by the temperature of the gas molecules considered. If the temperature is suddenly changed by a sudden change in the internal conditions such as an expansion or contraction, the new equilibrium will be reached by some one or more of the molecules under these new conditions. However it is to be remembered that the process to reach the new equilibrium of the rotational energy is a very slow one. In other words a very large number of collisions are necessary to excite the vibration

degrees of freedom of the molecule properly, hence the average velocity of the molecules is  $\bar{v}$ , the average distance travelled by a molecule per unit time is  $\bar{v}l$ . The number of collisions made by the molecules per unit time is then  $\bar{v}l/l$ . Therefore the time  $\tau$ , given by (1) called the relaxation time, measures the extent to which the internal energy is transferred to the mean free path at a given temperature. In other words, the relaxation time is a measure of the extent to which the pressure of the gas. The measured values of  $\tau$  for several typical gases are given in Table 2 (1949). Since at very low pressures the relaxation time is of the order of one second, if the gas is coupled with a high flow velocity, the gas cannot have time to transfer the internal degrees of freedom at various pressures. Thus the density of the gas, the internal energy of the gas can be considered as fixed at the "free stream" value. Since the mean free path is of the order of the mean free path, the number of degrees of freedom of the gas is fixed. To raise the value of  $\gamma$ , the ratio of specific heats, is to increase the number of degrees of freedom of the gas. The "relaxation time" is quite small, therefore the internal energy of the gas is quite small, the value of  $\gamma$  is however fixed. Therefore the value of  $\gamma$  is quite small, the effect is negligible.

### The Problem of the Relaxation of Fluid Properties

If the mean free path is very small compared with the dimensions of the body, the fluid can be treated as a continuous medium. The calculation is made by using the methods of continuum. When the mean free path is comparable with the dimensions of the body, the fluid can be treated as a gas. The calculation is made by using the methods of gas dynamics.

[illegible]







where  $N$  is the number of the free stream and  $Re$  is the Reynolds number of the flow relative to a length  $L$  of the body. For small Reynolds number,  $Re \ll 1$ , then

$$\frac{L}{\delta} \sim \frac{H}{Re}, \quad Re \ll 1 \quad (10)$$

For very large Reynolds number, it is well known that  $\frac{L}{\delta} \sim \sqrt{Re}$ , then

$$\frac{L}{\delta} \sim \frac{H}{\sqrt{Re}}, \quad Re \gg 1 \quad (11)$$

It is of the interest that  $\frac{L}{\delta} < \frac{L}{\delta}$  is considered as the proper range for the slip-flow law in the case of  $N \ll 1$ . The region of fluid mechanics occupies a region as shown in Fig. 3. The region below the slip-flow law is the region of the continuum and the region above the slip-flow law is the region of the free stream and the usual boundary conditions at the wall.

Van der Waals also gives a value of fluid mechanics. Then the chances for the collision of molecules among themselves are much smaller than the chances for the collision of molecules with the wall or the surface of the body.

... of a stream of molecules with a velocity and every disturbance ...  
 The re-emission of the molecules from the surface will be governed by the accommodation coefficient. But the greatest variation comes from the fact that one need not consider the disturbance of the free stream & turbulence due to the collision of the re-emitted molecules with the molecules in the stream. The value of fluid mechanics can be then called ...  
 Kramers (Ref. 10). Epstein (Ref. 11) calculated the value of a stream

the problem is very complicated and no satisfactory theoretical solution is at present known. The problem is given by

$$\frac{t}{t_0} \sim \frac{H}{k_0} > 10$$

It is concerned, the characteristic parameters are still to be determined. The parameters  $t$  and  $k_0$ , specifying the interaction between the particles, are much more complicated as will be evident in the following discussion.

The problem is given by

It is concerned, the characteristic parameters are still to be determined. The parameters  $t$  and  $k_0$ , specifying the interaction between the particles, are much more complicated as will be evident in the following discussion.

Dimensionless quantities

Over an Insulated Flat Plate

Ref: J. R. Stalden, D. Jukoff: "Heat Transfer to Bodies Traveling at High Speeds", 1950

J. R. Stalden, G. Jordan, M. O. Casagrande: "A Compendium of Heat Transfer", 1950  
NACA TN 2244 (1950)

1) Impinging quantities

$$C = \text{velocity speed ratio} = \frac{U}{U_1}$$

$$m_1 = \rho \frac{U_1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \left\{ e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} + \sqrt{\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right] \right\}$$

$$T = \frac{U_1^2}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right) \right]$$

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2} \rho U_1^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right) \right]$$

$$E = \rho \frac{U_1^3}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \left\{ \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} + \sqrt{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} \right\}$$

2) Re-emission

$$E_r = \frac{E}{\rho U_1^3} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} \left\{ \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} + \sqrt{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} + \frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2} \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} \pi \frac{U_1^2}{U^2}} \right\}$$

$$E_T = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} R T_w} \left[ \lambda_1 + (\lambda_2 - 1) \frac{e^{T_w/T_0}}{u \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \right] + \lambda_1 \sqrt{\frac{e^{T_w/T_0}}{T_w}} \left\{ \right.$$

II. Inclined plate at  $\alpha$

The energy balance, ————

$$m_{i+} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} + \lambda_2 \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right]$$

$$m_{i-} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left\{ e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} - \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right\}$$

$$E_{i+} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} + \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$E_{i-} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} - \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$E_{i+} + E_{i-} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} + \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$E_{r+} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} + \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$E_{r-} = \lambda_1 \frac{q_1}{\sqrt{2 \pi R T_w}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0}} - \sqrt{2 \pi R T_w} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{T_w}{T_0} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T_w}{T_0} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$\oint E_{i+} + E_{i-} = E_{r+} + E_{r-} + \varepsilon \sigma (T_w^4 - T^4)$$

$$\left[ h' + \frac{1}{2} h'' - \frac{1}{2} R T^* \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} h''} + \sqrt{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ h' + \frac{1}{2} h'' - \frac{1}{2} R T^* \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} h''} + \sqrt{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$+ (\Delta h - \frac{1}{2} R T^*) \frac{1}{4 \pi \sqrt{\pi}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha) + \frac{1}{4 \pi \sqrt{\pi}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$\frac{\delta n_{p,0} \sqrt{2 \pi R T^*}}{K_p(T_p)} = \frac{4 \pi \sqrt{\pi}}{K_p(T_p)} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$= \frac{2 \pi \sqrt{\pi}}{K_p(T_p)} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$\frac{\delta n_{p,0} \sqrt{2 \pi R T^*}}{K_p(T_p)} = \frac{2 \pi \sqrt{\pi}}{K_p(T_p)} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$\left[ h' + R T^* \left( \frac{1}{2} h'' \right) \right] e^{-\frac{1}{2} h''} + \sqrt{\pi} \left[ R T^* \left( \frac{1}{2} h'' \right) + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

$$+ (\Delta h - \frac{1}{2} R T^*) \frac{1}{4 \pi \sqrt{\pi}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha) + \frac{1}{4 \pi \sqrt{\pi}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} h'' + h' \right] \sin \alpha \operatorname{erf}(\sin \alpha)$$

4

$$\begin{aligned}
 c_1 &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\eta}} \frac{\sin \alpha}{s} e^{-\frac{s^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{2}} + 2 \left[ \frac{1}{s c_1} + \sin \alpha \right] \exp(-s \sin \alpha) \\
 &+ \frac{\sqrt{\eta}}{s^2} \left[ \sqrt{\eta} \sin \alpha + (\sqrt{\eta} - 1) \frac{\sqrt{\eta}}{\sqrt{\eta}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\eta}}} \right] e^{-\frac{s^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{2}} + \sqrt{\eta} \sin \alpha (1 + \sin \alpha) \\
 &- \sqrt{1 + \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\eta}}} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{\eta}}{s^2} e^{-\frac{s^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{2}} - \sqrt{\eta} \sin \alpha [1 - \exp(-s \sin \alpha)] \right] \left[ \frac{1}{s} \right] \\
 c_2 &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\eta}} \frac{\cos \alpha}{s} e^{-\frac{s^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{2}} + 2 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \exp(-s \sin \alpha)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 - \frac{1}{2} \lambda^{-1} = RT \left[ \frac{\lambda^2}{2 \epsilon T^2} - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right] = RT \left[ \epsilon^2 - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\sqrt{\eta} \epsilon \epsilon_0 (T_0 - T_0^*)}{f^* c_2} &= \frac{\sqrt{\eta} \epsilon \epsilon_0 T_0^* \left( \frac{T_0^*}{T_0} - 1 \right)}{f^* c_2 RT^*} \frac{RT^*}{RT^*} \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{\eta} \epsilon \epsilon_0 T_0^* \left( \frac{T_0^*}{T_0} - 1 \right)}{f^* c_2} RT^*
 \end{aligned}$$

## 1. 1. 4

## 高超声速和跨声速流动的相似律

## 1. 1. 4. 1

## Similarity Laws of Hypersonic Flows

## 高超声速流动的相似律

这是发表于1946年的“Similarity Laws of Hypersonic Flows”(高超声速流动的相似律)一文的原始推导手稿,共有12页。

在40年代初,对于做超声速飞行的尖头细长物体(如火箭)来说,飞行体周围的流场一般可以采用线性化近似方法来求解。然而,如果流动马赫数很高,流场中出现强击波,流动不再具有位势,线性化方程不再适用。在这种情况下,一方面,人们正在为研究这种高超声速流动而设计建造高超声速风洞;另一方面,也积极探索新的理论途径。

那时,作者正在帮助Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)整理发表有关跨声速流动相似律的论文,von Kármán用了一个仿射变换,建立了跨声速流动的相似律。作者意识到,这种方法同样可以用来分析高超声速流动的控制方程。一般来说,描述这种流动的独立的无量纲参数有两个,即飞行体的相对厚度 $\delta/b$ ( $\delta$ 和 $b$ 分别是飞行体的厚度和长度)以及来流马赫数 $M$ 。作者在分析了控制方程中各项大小以后发现:在飞行体比较细长的情况下,可以舍弃一些高阶小量,由此得到的简化近似方程只包含一个无量纲参数,它就是上述两个参数的乘积 $K(=M\delta/b)$ 。由此,作者就得到了有关高超声速流动的升力和阻力系数的相似律。有了这一相似律,可以大大减少风洞试验和数值计算的工作量。

## Supersonic Flow $M_1 \rightarrow \infty$

### (II) Two Dimensional Case

#### a) The initial shock



$$\tan \beta = \tan \alpha \cdot \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1}$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma+1} \beta_1 \sin^2 \alpha$$

$$M_2^2 = (1 + \cot^2 \beta) \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma} = \left( 1 + \cot^2 \alpha \cdot \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \right)^2 \right) \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}$$

$$M_2^2 = \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma} \frac{1}{\tan^2 \alpha} + \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \cot^2 \alpha$$

$$= \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma} \frac{1}{\tan^2 \alpha} + \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \left[ \frac{1}{\tan^2 \alpha} - 1 \right]$$

$$M_2^2 = \frac{(\gamma+1)^2}{2\gamma(\gamma-1)} \frac{1}{\tan^2 \alpha} - \frac{2}{\gamma-1}$$

$$\cot \beta = \cot \alpha \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \right)$$



6. Subsequent Expansion

We shall use the formula

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta_1 - \Theta_2 &= \sqrt{\frac{p_1}{p_2-1}} \tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{H_2^2-1}{H_1^2-1}} - \tan^{-1} \sqrt{H_1^2-1} - \sqrt{\frac{p_2}{p_2-1}} \tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{H_2^2-1}{H_1^2-1}} \tan^{-1} \sqrt{H_1^2-1} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{p_2-1}{p_2}} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{p_2-1}{p_2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{p_2-1}{p_2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} - \dots \right] \\ &\quad - \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} - \dots \right] \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{p_2-1}{p_2}} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{p_2-1}{p_2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{p_2-1}{p_2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} - \dots \right] \\ &\quad + \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} - \dots \right] \\ &= \frac{\pi}{p_2-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_1^2-1}} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \frac{p_2}{(p_2-1)^3} \left( \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} - \frac{1}{H_1^3-1} \right) - \dots \end{aligned}$$

We have the formula

$$1 + \frac{p_2-1}{2} H_1^2 = \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{p_2-1}{2}}, \quad 1 + \frac{p_2-1}{2} H_2^2 = \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{p_2-1}{2}}$$

Our aim is to express  $p_1/p_2$  in terms of  $\Theta_1 - \Theta_2$ .

$$\left| \frac{1 + \frac{p_2-1}{2} H_1^2}{1 + \frac{p_2-1}{2} H_2^2} = \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{p_2-1}{2}} \right|$$

$$G_2 - G = \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \left\{ -\frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{(\gamma-1)^2} \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right\} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_2^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left\{ -\frac{1}{3} \frac{4\gamma}{(\gamma-1)^2} \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right\} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\frac{\frac{1}{M_2^2} - \frac{1}{M_1^2}}{\frac{1}{M_2^2} - \frac{1}{M_1^2}} = \frac{1}{M_2^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{M_2^2} = \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\frac{M_1^2}{M_2^2} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2}} + \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \left( 2 - (1+\gamma) \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \right] \frac{1}{M_1^2}$$

$$\frac{1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2}}{\frac{M_1^2}{M_2^2} - \frac{1}{M_2^2}} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{M_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta_0 - \theta &= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right] \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \right] \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{3} \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right] \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{3(\gamma-1)}{2\gamma}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \left\{ \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \right\} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. - \frac{1}{3} \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{3(\gamma-1)}{2\gamma}} \right) \right] \right] \\
 &= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. - \frac{1}{3} \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{3(\gamma-1)}{2\gamma}} \right) \right] \frac{1}{M_1^2} \dots \right] \\
 &\quad \times \frac{1}{M_1^2} \\
 \theta_0 - \theta &= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \left[ \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma-1} + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \left( \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma}} \right) \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Small  $\theta_0$

$$\tan(\alpha - \theta_0) = \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan \alpha$$

$$\frac{\tan \alpha - \tan \theta_0}{1 + \tan \alpha \cdot \tan \theta_0} = \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan \alpha$$

$$\tan \alpha - \tan \theta_0 = \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan \alpha + \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan^2 \alpha \cdot \tan \theta_0$$

$$\frac{2}{\gamma+1} \tan \alpha = \tan \theta_0 + \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan^2 \alpha \cdot \tan \theta_0$$

$$\frac{2}{(\gamma+1)^2} \frac{\sin \alpha}{1 - \tan^2 \alpha} \tan \theta_0 = \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan \theta_0 + \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \tan^2 \alpha \cdot \tan \theta_0 \cdot \frac{\sin \alpha}{\tan \alpha}$$

$$\frac{4}{(j+1)^2} [\sin^2 \alpha - \sin^2 \alpha] = \tan^2 \theta_0 \left[ 1 - 2 \sin^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha \right] + 2 \frac{j-1}{j+1} \tan^2 \theta_0 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha$$

$$+ \left( \frac{j-1}{j+1} \right)^2 \tan^2 \theta_0 \sin^2 \alpha$$

$$\left[ \left( 1 - \frac{j-1}{j+1} \right)^2 \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{j}{(j+1)^2} \right] \sin^2 \alpha + \left[ 2 \left( \frac{j-1}{j+1} - 2 \right) \tan^2 \theta_0 - \frac{j}{(j+1)^2} \right] \sin \alpha \cos \alpha + \tan^2 \theta_0 = 0$$

$$\left( \frac{j-1}{j+1} \right)^2 (\tan^2 \theta_0 + 1) \sin^2 \alpha - 2 \frac{j}{j+1} \left[ \tan^2 \theta_0 - \frac{j}{(j+1)^2} \right] \sin \alpha \cos \alpha - \tan^2 \theta_0 = 0$$

$$(\tan^2 \theta_0 + 1) \sin^2 \alpha - 2 \left( \frac{j+1}{2} \right) \left[ \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{1}{j+1} \right] \sin \alpha \cos \alpha + \left( \frac{j+1}{2} \right)^2 \sin^2 \alpha = 0$$

$$\therefore \sin^2 \alpha = \frac{2 \left( \frac{j+1}{2} \right) \left[ \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{1}{j+1} \right] \sin \alpha \cos \alpha - \left( \frac{j+1}{2} \right)^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{(\tan^2 \theta_0 + 1) \sin^2 \alpha - \tan^2 \theta_0}$$

$$= \tan^2 \theta_0 \left[ \frac{j+1}{2} \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} - \frac{j+1}{4} \tan^2 \theta_0} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \tan^2 \theta_0 \left[ (j+1) \tan^2 \theta_0 + 1 - \sqrt{1 - (j+1) \tan^2 \theta_0} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \tan^2 \theta_0 \left[ (j+1) \tan^2 \theta_0 + 1 - 1 + \frac{j+1}{2} \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{1}{8} (j+1)^2 \tan^4 \theta_0 \dots \right]$$

$$\sin^2 \alpha = \left( \frac{j+1}{2} \right)^2 \tan^2 \theta_0 + \frac{1}{16} (j+1)^2 \tan^4 \theta_0 \tan^2 \theta_0 \dots$$

$$\sin \theta_0 = \theta_0 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{6} \theta_0^2 \dots \right)$$

$$\sin^2 \theta_0 = \theta_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \theta_0^2 \dots \right)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 \theta_n^2(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \theta^2(x) dx$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 \theta_n^2(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \theta^2(x) dx$$

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$$\frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 \theta_n^2(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \theta^2(x) dx$$

Thus

$$\theta_0 - \theta = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma K}{\gamma - 1}} \theta_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \gamma + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^2 \right] \\ \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} \right] + \frac{\gamma}{4} \left[ -\frac{\gamma + 1}{3} + 2 \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} - \frac{3\gamma}{5} \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} \right] \theta_0^2$$

Since

$$\theta_0 - \theta = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma K}{\gamma - 1}} \theta_0 \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} \right] + \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( \gamma + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^2 \right] \\ + \frac{\gamma}{4} \left[ -\frac{\gamma + 1}{3} + 2 \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} - \frac{3\gamma}{5} \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{2\gamma}} \right] \theta_0^2$$

If  $\beta = 0$ , then

$$-A = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma K}{\gamma - 1}} \theta_0 \left[ 1 + \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left( \gamma + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \right)^2 \right\} \theta_0^2 \right] - \theta_0$$

$$\sim \left( \sqrt{\frac{\gamma K}{\gamma - 1}} - 1 \right) \theta_0 \quad \text{If } \gamma = 1.4, \quad \sqrt{\frac{\gamma K}{\gamma - 1}} - 1 = 1.12$$

# Two-Dimensional Flow

The general differential equation is

$$\left(1 - \frac{u^2}{a^2}\right) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - 2 \frac{uv}{a^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{a^2}\right) \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$u = H + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

$$v = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}$$

$$a^2 = a_0^2 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left[ H^2 + 2H \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$a'^2 = a_0^2 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} H^2, \quad a_0^2 = a'^2 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} H^2$$

$$a^2 = a'^2 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} H^2 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left[ H^2 + 2H \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$= a'^2 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left[ 2H \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$\frac{H^2}{a'^2} = \frac{H^2 + 2H \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)^2}{a'^2 \left[ 1 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left( 2H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{a'^2} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{a'^2} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}\right)^2 \right) \right]}$$

$$\approx \frac{H^2 + 2H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}}{1 - (\gamma-1) H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}}$$

$$\frac{H^2}{a'^2} \approx \frac{\left(H + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}}{a'^2 \left[ 1 - (\gamma-1) H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} \right]} \approx \frac{H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}}{1 - (\gamma-1) H^0 \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \frac{1}{a'^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}}$$

Therefore the differential equation becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ (1-\gamma^{-1})H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 - H^0 - 2H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \right] \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \lambda} - 2H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \\ & + \left[ (1-\gamma^{-1})H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 \right] \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ (1-\gamma^{-1})H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 - H^0 - \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \lambda^2} - 2H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right. \\ & \left. + \left[ (1-\gamma^{-1})H^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 \right] \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Let } \psi = a^2 b \frac{1}{H^0} f(\lambda, \gamma)$$

$$\lambda = 65$$

$$\gamma = 67 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right)^2$$

$$\text{Boundary conditions, at } \infty, \quad \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} = 0$$

$$\text{at } \gamma = 0, \quad \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)_{\gamma=0} = a^2 H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) f(15)$$

$$\left\{ (1-\gamma^{-1}) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \lambda} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right)^2} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} = 2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} + \left[ H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) \right]^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma}$$

$$\text{At } \gamma = 0, \quad a^2 b \frac{1}{H^0} \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} = a^2 H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) f(15)$$

$$\text{Or } \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \gamma} \right)_{\gamma=0} = \left[ H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) \right] \left[ H^0 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) \right] f(15)$$



$$\lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0} \frac{H^2 \beta}{\eta} = K, \quad \lim_{\eta \rightarrow 0}$$

$$\left\{ 1 - (1-\eta) \frac{\beta}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta^2}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \left( \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{\beta}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{2} \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \frac{\beta}{\gamma} + K^2 \frac{\beta}{\gamma^2}$$

$$\text{Boundary conditions, At } \eta = \frac{\beta}{\gamma} = \frac{\beta}{\gamma} = 1$$

$$\text{At } \eta = 0, \quad \left( \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \right) = K^2 \beta^2$$

$$\beta = \beta_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{\beta_0}{2} \frac{H^2 + 2H \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} + \left( \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} \right)^2}{a^2 \left( 1 - (1-\eta) H^2 \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta_0^2}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \left( \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right)} \right]^{-\frac{\gamma}{\beta_0}}$$

$$\beta^* = \beta_0 \left[ 1 + \frac{\beta_0}{2} H^2 \right]^{-\frac{\gamma}{\beta_0}}$$

$$\beta = \beta^* \left[ \frac{1 + \frac{\beta_0}{2} H^2}{1 + \frac{\beta_0}{2} \frac{H^2 + 2H \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} + \left( \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} \right)^2}{1 - (1-\eta) H^2 \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta_0^2}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \left( \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} \right)^2}} \right]^{-\frac{\gamma}{\beta_0}}$$

$$\beta = \beta^* \left[ 1 - (1-\eta) \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta_0^2}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \left( \frac{\beta_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right]^{-\frac{\gamma}{\beta_0}}$$

$$L_m = L_0 + \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz = \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz = \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz = \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz$$

$$C_2 = \frac{D}{\Delta T} = \frac{D}{T_1 - T_2} = \frac{(k)H^2}{H^2} \frac{1}{T_1 - T_2} \left[ \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz - \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz \right]$$

$$C_2 = \frac{D}{H^2} \left[ \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz - \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz \right]$$

$$C_2 = \frac{D}{H^2} \left[ \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz - \int_{-a}^a \int_0^{\infty} \rho(r, z) dz \right]$$

Finally, eq. (1) gives

$$\left[ (1-\gamma)H^2 \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{H^2} \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} \right] \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\text{Boundary conditions, at } \infty, \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\text{At } y=1, \quad \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \right)_{y=1} = \alpha H^2 \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}$$

$$\left[ (1-\gamma) \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{H^2} \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} \right] \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} + \left[ (1-\gamma) \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{H^2} \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} \right] \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \\ = \frac{2 \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2}}{\gamma} + [H^2 \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2}] \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}$$

$$\eta=0, \quad a^0 b \frac{1}{H^0} \left( \gamma \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} \right)_{\gamma=0} = a^0 M^0 \left( \frac{f}{b} \right)' b' h(\beta)$$

$$\left( \gamma \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} \right)_{\gamma=0} = [M^0 \left( \frac{f}{b} \right)]^* h(\beta)$$

$\int_0$

$$M^0 \left( \frac{f}{b} \right) = K,$$

$$\frac{1}{2} - \eta - \eta \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} \right)^2 \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} + \dots \right\} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{K^2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} \int \frac{1}{\gamma} \dots$$

$$= 2 \frac{1}{\eta} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} + K^2 \frac{f'}{\beta^2}$$

$$\text{At } \infty, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} = 0.$$

$$\left( \gamma \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} \right)_{\gamma=0} = K^2 h(\beta)$$

$$C_0 = \frac{1}{H^{0,2}} \mathcal{O}(M^0 \frac{f}{b})$$

## 1.1.4.2

## Similarity Laws for Non-steady Two-Dimensional Transonic and Hypersonic Flow

## 非定常二维跨声速和高超声速流动的相似律

这是作者已完成但未发表的“Similarity Laws for Non-steady Two-Dimensional Transonic and Hypersonic Flow”(非定常二维跨声速和高超声速流动的相似律)一文的初稿,共有11页

作者在 Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)发表了跨声速流动相似律和他自己发表了高超声速流动相似律以后,进一步探讨了非定常流动的相似律问题。经过作者精巧的量纲分析,得到了下面两点很有意思的结论:

(1) 对于振荡机翼的跨声速流动来说,只要加上有关振荡的频率和振幅的两个相似性条件,即频率正比于 $(\delta/b)^{1/2}$ 以及幅值正比于 $(\delta/b)^{1/4}$  (其中 $\delta$ 为机翼厚度, $b$ 是翼展),那么只要保持相似参数 $K(=1-M\sqrt{\delta/b})$ 的数值和定常跨声速流动所取的数值相同,振荡机翼绕流问题的相似律成立。

(2) 对于非定常高超声速流动来说,因为来流速度 $U$ 很大,由翼展 $b$ 、圆频率 $\omega$ 和 $U$ 组成的无量纲频率 $\Omega(b\omega/U)$ 很小,因而问题可以当做定常流动对待而大为简化,相似参数只有一个,也就是定常高超声速流动问题中的相似参数 $K(=M\delta/b)$ 。这一点是和跨声速情况不同的。

# Similarity Laws for Two-Dimensional Turbulence and Dynamic Flow

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## 1. Introduction

The two important quantities which control the character of the flow are the velocity of sound  $c^*$  in the free stream and the propagation velocity of a signal in the free stream. The latter quantity should be a constant in the free stream, which is determined essentially by the medium in which the disturbance will travel across the surface of body. To obtain the condition that the disturbance created by the body is of the same order of magnitude as the free stream velocity, we require that the distance  $l$  of the body is of the order of  $l \sim \frac{U}{c^*}$ .

In the case of a surface flow, all these three quantities are of the same order of magnitude. In the case of a free stream flow, the quantity  $l \sim \frac{U}{c^*}$  is much smaller than either  $U$  or  $c^*$ . The distances of the body cannot be assumed to be much smaller than  $l \sim \frac{U}{c^*}$ . Hence here also, no boundary layer will develop.

It is clear that the flow is of the same order of magnitude as the free stream velocity, and the distance  $l$  is of the order of  $l \sim \frac{U}{c^*}$ .

However, certain similarity rules exist for these flows and have been demonstrated in a considerably simplified manner.

is known. It is the problem of the present paper to obtain the method to compute  $\psi$ .

### 2. Formulation

Let the free stream with velocity  $U$  be in the  $x$ -direction. The fluid of the thin body occupies a part of the  $x$ -axis in the interval  $-b \leq x \leq c$ .  $c$  is the local velocity of sound and  $c^2$  is the critical velocity of sound when the fluid velocity is equal to  $c^2$ . We define the velocity components  $u$  and  $v$  as follows.

$$u = U + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

$$v = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}$$

The differential equation to be satisfied by  $\psi$  is then

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} = 0 \quad (1)$$

where  $c^2$  is given by

$$c^2 = U^2 - \frac{U^2}{2} \left[ 2c^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} \right] \quad (2)$$

The boundary conditions at infinity have to be such as to give a flow of uniform velocity  $U$  along the  $x$ -axis. Therefore

$$\left. \begin{aligned} c^2 + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} &= U \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } \infty \quad (3)$$

It is known that the solution of the equation (1) is unique. To give a fluid velocity tangential to the contour. Let the shape of the contour be given by  $y = f(x)$ . Then the boundary condition at the contour is  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial n} = 0$ , where  $n$  is the normal to the contour. This condition can be written as  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + f'(x) \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = 0$ . Considering a family of streamlines  $\psi = \text{const}$ , we have

在 \$t=0\$ 时, \$A(t=0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}\$  
 且 \$A(t=0) = 1\$ 和 \$A(t=0) = 0\$  
 由 \$A(t=0) = 1\$ 和 \$A(t=0) = 0\$  
 可得 \$A(t=0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}\$  

$$\left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial t}\right)_{t=0} = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 A(t=0)$$
  

$$\left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial t}\right)_{t=0} = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 A(t=0)$$

To obtain the similarity law, we introduce the following function

$$x = \xi \sqrt{t}, \quad \eta = \frac{y}{\sqrt{t}}, \quad t = \frac{b}{c^2} \frac{\tau}{(1-H^2)^2}$$

where \$H\$ is the function of \$\xi, \eta, \tau\$ and \$m, n\$ are constants

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \\
 & = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \\
 & + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \\
 & + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \\
 & + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2}
 \end{aligned}$$





$$\text{at } \frac{1-M^2}{\gamma^2} = K,$$

then the differential equation (12) can be written as

$$\frac{dF}{d\eta} = (1+\gamma) K \frac{dF}{d\eta} + 2K$$

The boundary conditions become

$$\frac{dF}{d\eta} = -\left(\frac{2}{\gamma+1}\right) \quad \text{at } \eta = 0$$

and

$$\frac{dF}{d\eta} = 0 \quad \text{at } \eta = 1$$

$$K = \frac{(1+\gamma)}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\gamma+1} \right) \quad \text{at } \eta = 1$$

Equation (12) can be written as a differential equation for  $F(\eta)$  in the form

similarity transformation by making a slightly different transformation.

In fact

$$\eta = \frac{1-M^2}{\gamma^2} F(\eta)$$

$$x = b\eta, \quad y = b \frac{\eta}{(1-\eta)^{1/2}}, \quad t = \frac{b}{c^2} \frac{\eta}{(1-\eta)^{1/2}}$$

and

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2}(\gamma+1)$$

the differential equation for  $F(\eta)$  is

$$\frac{d^2 F}{d\eta^2} = 2K \frac{dF}{d\eta} + 2K \frac{d^2 F}{d\eta^2}$$

where

$$K = \frac{1-\eta^2}{2}$$

The corresponding boundary conditions are then

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} &= -1 \\ \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } \infty \quad (11)$$

and

$$\left. \begin{aligned} K \left( \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} \right)_{\xi=\infty} &= f_1(\xi, \tau) \\ K \left( \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} \right)_{\xi=0} &= f_2(\xi, \tau) \end{aligned} \right\} -1 \leq \xi \leq 1 \quad (12)$$

For steady flows, the system of equations (10), (11), (12) and (13) reduces to that of von Kármán (Ref. 1).

The static pressure  $p$  at any point can be readily calculated from the Bernoulli law:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \xi} + \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \xi} \right)^2 + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \tau} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\xi} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\xi} \quad (14)$$

and the velocity  $u$  by choosing each term of the right side of (14) as  $p$  and the pressure difference  $\phi_f$  as

$$\phi_f = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} f'' \eta^2} = - \frac{2(1 - H^2)}{f} \left( 1 + \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} \right) \quad (15)$$

$$0, \quad \phi = - \frac{f'' \eta^2}{f} \mathcal{P}(K, \xi, \tau) \quad (16)$$

where  $\eta = 0$  is the surface of the fluid over the surface of the body, and the drag coefficient  $C_D$  is the left coefficient of  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $C_L$  is the right coefficient of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

$$C_D = \frac{f'' \eta^2}{f} \mathcal{D}(K, \tau) \quad (17)$$

$$\text{and} \quad C_L = \frac{f'' \eta^2}{f} \mathcal{L}(K, \tau) \quad (18)$$

Now let us consider the electric field of an electron and let us take a slice of the electron of thickness  $h$ . The upper and lower surfaces of the slice are  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The electric field of the slice is  $E$ . The natural velocity due to oscillation is denoted as  $v_0$ . Hence

$$E^2 \delta \rho = E^2 \delta \rho(t) + a \cos \omega t \quad (19)$$

By introducing the reduced frequency  $\omega$  defined as

$$\omega = \frac{h}{c^2} \frac{v_0}{h - H^2} = \frac{b \omega_0}{c^2 (h \Gamma)^2} K \quad (20)$$

equation (19) can be rewritten as

$$\rho_1(t, \tau) = \rho(t) + \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \frac{\Gamma^{3/2}}{\Gamma^2} K \sin \omega t \quad (21)$$

Similarly

$$\rho_2(t, \tau) = -\rho(t) + \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \frac{\Gamma^{3/2}}{\Gamma^2} K \sin \omega t \quad (22)$$

If the same is done for the other two surfaces, the condition that the sum of the four surfaces is a constant, if

- 1)  $(1 - H^2) \propto \Gamma^{3/2}$
- 2)  $\frac{b}{c^2} \frac{v_0}{h - H^2} \propto \Gamma^{3/2}$
- 3)  $\frac{b}{c^2} \frac{v_0}{h - H^2} \propto \Gamma^{3/2}$

which are all satisfied, we have a constant  $\rho$ .

The first two conditions are satisfied by the definition of  $\Gamma$ . The third condition is satisfied by the definition of  $\omega$ . Since  $H^2 > 1$ , the reduced frequency  $\omega$  is defined by

$$\omega = \frac{b}{c^2} \frac{v_0}{H^2 - 1} \quad (23)$$

Since  $H^2 > 1$ , the reduced frequency  $\omega$  is defined by

2

which frequency has the same effect as harmonic flow the effect frequency of a disturbance is multiplied by the factor  $\sqrt{1-M^2}$ . We can also say that the pressure, the aerodynamic forces acting on the airfoil cannot be calculated by the same methods as used for the case of a subsonic flow. Therefore when one is interested in the sound field of aircraft in the supersonic flight, this becomes a very important problem.

### 3. Aerodynamic Flow

Let the free stream velocity be  $U$  in the direction of the  $x$ -axis. The body occupies a region of the  $x$ -axis in the interval  $-b \leq x \leq b$ . The disturbance velocity potential  $\phi(x, y, t)$  is defined through velocity components  $u$  and  $v$  by

$$\begin{aligned} u &= U + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\ v &= \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

The differential equation for  $\phi$  is then

$$\phi_{xx} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} + 2U \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial t} + U^2 \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + 2U \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} + U^2 \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} \quad (15)$$

where  $c$  is the local velocity of sound given by

$$c^2 = U^2 - \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 + 2U \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right) \quad (16)$$

$U$  is the free stream velocity in the  $x$ -direction and  $\rho$  is the density. The boundary conditions at infinity are

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 0 \quad \text{at } \infty \quad (17)$$

At the surface of the body

$$\left( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right)_{\text{surface}} = U \left( \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)_{\text{surface}} \quad (18)$$

Let  $\phi$  be the disturbance potential in the  $x$ -direction, then we can write



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$$C_d = f^2 \delta(K, \gamma, \varepsilon) \quad (46)$$

and  $C_f = f^2 \mathcal{L}(K, \gamma, \varepsilon) \quad (47)$

The function  $\delta$  is the same as given by eqn. (27) for the case of an inviscid fluid. For the case of a viscous fluid, the function  $\delta$  is

$$\delta = \frac{610}{M} \quad (48)$$

This agrees with the results of the dissipated shock wave equation (27), as  $M^2/M^2-1 \rightarrow 1$  if  $M^2$  large. In this case, the term  $\delta$  is small and hence it means that the effect of viscosity will be much smaller than the effect of viscosity on the free stream velocity. It is very large for hypersonic flows. This is contrary to the increase of  $M^2$ . In this case then, the effect of viscosity is small and the calculation is generally sufficient and the effect of viscosity is small.

References

- 1) L. von Kármán: "The Similarity Law of Transonic Flow"  
J. of Math. & Phys., Vol. 46, pp. 182-186 (1947)
- 2) L. S. Tsim, "Similarity Laws of Hypersonic Flow"  
J. of Math. & Physics, Vol. 45, pp. 247-251 (1946)
- 3) See for instance, J. E. Garbisch and S. I. Rubinstein, "Flutter and Oscillations: An Exact Calculation for an Airfoil in a Two-dimensional Supersonic Flow" NACA Tech. Note No. 1158 (1946)

## 1.1.5

### 风洞设计

#### 1.1.5.1

#### 弹道试验用超声速风洞的设计

1940年6月,加州理工学院的古根海姆航空实验室为了要建造一个弹道试验用的超声速风洞,实验室负责人 Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)委托钱学森为这一设计进行全面的方案论证和分析计算。分析计算的手稿长达143页,与手稿一起附有一份风洞设计的说明书(打印稿,9页),名为“Memorandum on Supersonic Wind Tunnel for Ballistic Purposes”(关于弹道试验用超声速风洞的备忘录)。

为设计闭合循环连续工作的超声速风洞,钱学森考虑了两类可能的驱动气流的方案,即“Direct operation”(直接驱动)和“Induction operation”(引射驱动)。采用直接驱动,风洞中的气流直接由压气机不断提供,优点是流经试验段气流动能与输入功有较高的比值。采用引射驱动,压气机所需供给的气流量比流经试验段的气流量要小,而且主气流稳定性好。作者吸取了两者的优点,决定采用直接驱动和引射驱动的组合方案,在低速情况(马赫数  $M < 1.2$ )采用引射驱动,而在高速情况( $1.2 < M < 3.2$ )采用直接驱动。这样的组合既可满足炸弹试验的低速要求,也能适应其他弹道试验的高速需要。

作者的手稿中,围绕上述两种驱动方式进行了不同工况下的参数(试验段断面积、气流马赫数、压缩比、体积流量等)计算,风洞设计部分涉及到压气机、冷却器、试验段设备(天平、纹影仪、真空泵等)、风洞结构(管路、喷管、试验段)等的配置以及其他工程问题(风洞模型试验、工程设计、标定等)的解决方案。

这里选印了分析计算手稿中的6页,即手稿的第1—4页和第9页以及



风洞设计说明书的首页。作者在这一部分手稿中针对直接驱动方案，进行了主要参数的计算，其结果反映在手稿第9页上的压缩比 $\lambda$ 与输入空气的体积流率 $V_0$ 的变化关系中

从这份手稿中，我们可以看到，钱学森不仅是一位卓越的工程科学家，而且曾经主持过超声速风洞这样的大工程的设计；也正是由于他具有工程设计方面的丰富经验，才能切实把握工程技术的实际需要，为发展与航空有关的技术科学做出杰出的贡献。他在国外所奠定的工程科学理论和工程设计经验，成为他回国以后在技术上领导我国火箭导弹和航天事业的基础。

PRELIMINARY DESIGN

1

(I) If the air in entrance cone is under following conditions

pressure  $\sim p_1$

density  $\sim \rho_1$

temperature  $\sim 580^\circ \text{F. Abs.}$

and the air in test section is under the following conditions

pressure  $\sim p_2$

density  $\sim \rho_2$

temperature  $\sim T_2$ ,

the following relation exists (neglecting velocity in the entrance cone)

$$\frac{p_1}{p_2} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left( \frac{V_2}{a_2} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} = 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left( \frac{V_2}{a_2} \right)^2$$

$$\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = \frac{p_1}{p_2} \cdot \frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left( \frac{V_2}{a_2} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

Therefore if we put  $\frac{V_2}{a_2} = M_2$  and  $\gamma = 1.405$

$$\frac{p_1}{p_2} = \left( 1 + 0.2025 M_2^2 \right)^{3.420}, \quad \frac{T_1}{T_2} = 1 + 0.2025 M_2^2$$

$$\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = \left( 1 + 0.2025 M_2^2 \right)^{2.470}$$

$$\lambda = 49/\sqrt{T} \quad \text{H. sec}$$

$$\text{Horsepower} = \frac{\frac{P}{2} V_t^3 A_t}{550 \times \text{Energy Ratio}} = \dots$$

Let  $\lambda$  = compression ratio,

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} (1-\eta_0)} = (1 + 0.2025 M_t^2)^{3470(1-\eta_0)}$$

$M_t$	$T_2$	$P_2$	$V_t$	$E$	$\eta_0$	$\eta_0 +$
1.0	400	10.33	1242	2.60	0.90	0.90
1.5	415	10	1400	2.47	0.90	0.90
2.0	432	9.51	154	2.4	0.90	0.90
2.5	450	9.17	165	2.35	0.90	0.90
3.0	467	8.85	175	2.32	0.90	0.90
3.5	485	8.55	185	2.28	0.90	0.90
4.0	500	8.27	194	2.25	0.90	0.90
4.5	515	8.00	202	2.22	0.90	0.90
5.0	530	7.75	210	2.19	0.90	0.90
5.5	545	7.50	218	2.16	0.90	0.90
6.0	560	7.25	225	2.13	0.90	0.90

$$\lambda = \frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{P_2}{P_1} = \dots$$

$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{V_1^2}{c^2}$
1.20	0.112	1.146	1.185	1.185	1.185
1.40	0.144	1.256	1.256	1.256	1.256
1.60	0.176	1.344	1.344	1.344	1.344
1.80	0.208	1.424	1.424	1.424	1.424
2.00	0.240	1.504	1.504	1.504	1.504
2.20	0.272	1.584	1.584	1.584	1.584
2.40	0.304	1.664	1.664	1.664	1.664
2.60	0.336	1.744	1.744	1.744	1.744
2.80	0.368	1.824	1.824	1.824	1.824
3.00	0.400	1.904	1.904	1.904	1.904
3.20	0.432	1.984	1.984	1.984	1.984
3.40	0.464	2.064	2.064	2.064	2.064
3.60	0.496	2.144	2.144	2.144	2.144
3.80	0.528	2.224	2.224	2.224	2.224
4.00	0.560	2.304	2.304	2.304	2.304

If the density, pressure, temperature at inlet to the nozzle be  $\rho_0, p_0, T_0$ .

$$\rho_0 V_0 = \rho V = \rho_0 V_0 = \rho V$$

$$\rho_0 V_0 = \rho V = \rho_0 V_0 = \rho V$$

$$\frac{\rho_0}{\rho} = \frac{V_0}{V} = \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

$$\frac{\rho_0}{\rho} = \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

1

$$\rho_0 = 1.27$$

$\rho_0$	$\rho_1$	$\rho_2$	$\rho_3$	$\rho_4$	$\rho_5$	$\rho_6$
1.20	1.21	1.22	1.23	1.24	1.25	1.26
1.21	1.22	1.23	1.24	1.25	1.26	1.27
1.22	1.23	1.24	1.25	1.26	1.27	1.28
1.23	1.24	1.25	1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29
1.24	1.25	1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29	1.30
1.25	1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29	1.30	1.31
1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29	1.30	1.31	1.32
1.27	1.28	1.29	1.30	1.31	1.32	1.33
1.28	1.29	1.30	1.31	1.32	1.33	1.34
1.29	1.30	1.31	1.32	1.33	1.34	1.35
1.30	1.31	1.32	1.33	1.34	1.35	1.36
1.31	1.32	1.33	1.34	1.35	1.36	1.37
1.32	1.33	1.34	1.35	1.36	1.37	1.38
1.33	1.34	1.35	1.36	1.37	1.38	1.39
1.34	1.35	1.36	1.37	1.38	1.39	1.40
1.35	1.36	1.37	1.38	1.39	1.40	1.41
1.36	1.37	1.38	1.39	1.40	1.41	1.42
1.37	1.38	1.39	1.40	1.41	1.42	1.43
1.38	1.39	1.40	1.41	1.42	1.43	1.44
1.39	1.40	1.41	1.42	1.43	1.44	1.45
1.40	1.41	1.42	1.43	1.44	1.45	1.46
1.41	1.42	1.43	1.44	1.45	1.46	1.47
1.42	1.43	1.44	1.45	1.46	1.47	1.48
1.43	1.44	1.45	1.46	1.47	1.48	1.49
1.44	1.45	1.46	1.47	1.48	1.49	1.50

$$\rho_0 = 1.27$$

$$\rho_1 = \frac{1}{\lambda} (1 + 0.2025 M_0^2)$$

$$\rho_1 = \frac{\rho_0}{\lambda} (1 + 0.2025 M_0^2)^{3/4}$$



# 1. Methods of operation

## 1.1. Indirect drive

At low velocities the flow is laminar and the boundary layer is thin. The flow is laminar and the boundary layer is thin.

At higher velocities the flow becomes turbulent and the boundary layer is thick. The flow becomes turbulent and the boundary layer is thick.

At very high velocities the flow becomes highly turbulent and the boundary layer is very thick. The flow becomes highly turbulent and the boundary layer is very thick.

For these reasons a combination of the two systems is suggested using indirect drive for lower velocities (Mach's number  $\leq 1.2$ ) and the direct drive for higher velocities up to the maximum Mach's number of about 1.5. This combination makes it possible to use a test chamber of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume. The test chamber is of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume. The test chamber is of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume.

For these reasons a combination of the two systems is suggested using indirect drive for lower velocities (Mach's number  $\leq 1.2$ ) and the direct drive for higher velocities up to the maximum Mach's number of about 1.5. This combination makes it possible to use a test chamber of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume. The test chamber is of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume. The test chamber is of larger diameter and therefore of larger volume.

## 1.2. Direct drive

### 1.2.1. Indirect drive

At low velocities the flow is laminar and the boundary layer is thin. The flow is laminar and the boundary layer is thin.

### 1. 1. 5. 2

#### Proposal and Study for the Construction of a Pilot Hypersonic Wind Tunnel at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology

关于在麻省理工学院建造中间规模的高超声速风洞的建议和研究报告

1947年3—5月, 钱学森和 J. R. Markham、M. Witunski 联名向麻省理工学院航空工程系的领导送交一份建议和研究报告, 名为“Proposal and Study for the Construction of a Pilot Hypersonic Wind Tunnel at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology”(关于在麻省理工学院建造中间规模的高超声速风洞的建议和研究报告) 他们充分认识到发展火箭技术的重要性, 它将大大推动空气动力学的发展 他们甚至考虑到了, 在不久的将来将会实现宇宙飞行, 火箭的最大飞行速度将大大超过  $4 \text{ km/s}$ , 相应的马赫数将远大于 13 从火箭发射到脱离地球的重力场, 人们对火箭所受的空气动力作用最不清楚的大概是在  $80 \text{ km}$  左右的高度, 在这样的高度上火箭的飞行马赫数大约在 7—13 之间, 这属于高超声速的范围 为此, 需要一个高超声速风洞以便开展必要的实验研究工作 然而, 在建造这种大型风洞之前, 必须解决风洞设计中的许多难题 鉴于当时在美国只有加州理工学院有一个小尺寸的高超声速风洞, 其试验段中的气流难以得到均匀的速度 于是, 作者建议在麻省理工学院建造一个中间规模的高超声速风洞, 以便利用这个风洞开展实验研究, 解决为设计大型高超声速风洞所遇到的难题。

在钱学森的手稿档案中保存有上述建议和研究报告的打印稿, 共 26 页 和这一报告放在一起的还有一份钱学森所写的高超声速风洞扩压器的设计书, 包括正文 13 页、附图 4 页和计算手稿 12 页 作者以其巧妙的构思, 设计了一种新型的扩压器——楔型扩压器, 当流过试验段的高超声速气流通过扩压器时, 将会产生一系列的斜击波, 使气流马赫数逐级降下来, 从而



得到满足需要的压缩比，可以大大改善扩压器的压力恢复的性能，满足高超声速风洞的要求。

这里选印了上述建议和研究报告的最前面 3 页和 1 张风洞示意图，以及扩压器计算手稿的前 4 页和扩压器的示意图。

1.1.1.1

The first of the two main parts of the work is the design of the hardware and the software of the system. The second part is the construction of the system.

The first part of the work is the design of the hardware and the software of the system.

The second part of the work is the construction of the system.

The third part of the work is the construction of the system.

The fourth part of the work is the construction of the system.

The fifth part of the work is the construction of the system.

The sixth part of the work is the construction of the system.

The seventh part of the work is the construction of the system.

The eighth part of the work is the construction of the system.

The ninth part of the work is the construction of the system.

The tenth part of the work is the construction of the system.

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- I. The Trend Towards Hypersonic Velocities
- II. The Characteristics of Hypersonic Flows and the Need for a Pilot Hypersonic Wind Tunnel
- III. Design Problems of Pilot Hypersonic Wind Tunnel
  - 1. Choice of Size of Test Section
  - 2. The Air Circuit - "Push-Pull" Intermittent Operation
  - 3. High Pressure Air Supply
  - 4. Nozzle Design
    - a. Use of Fide Nozzle expansion angles
    - b. Use of Two Step Expansion
  - 5. Design of Vacuum Chamber
    - a. Basic Relations
    - b. Estimation of Required Pressure Ratio
    - c. Computation of Vacuum Tank Volume Required
- IV. Design of Tunnel and Estimated Cost
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  - 2. Estimated Cost
- V. Research Staff

1. THE RANGE OF A ROCKET

While the need for research in the field of supersonic aerodynamics was not apparent a few years ago, there is no doubt today in the importance of this field of research. However, fundamental research, in distinction from developmental research, cannot stop at the present need, but must look beyond and anticipate future trends. What, then, is the trend of future advance in the field of aerodynamics?

It is certain that the range of rockets will increase. The most advanced rocket today is the V-2 rocket which has a range of approximately 200 miles and a maximum velocity of 3500 ft. per sec. Since the range of a rocket of the V-2 type is approximately proportional to the square of the maximum flight velocity, a range of 3000 miles requires a maximum flight velocity of approximately 13,000 ft. per sec. The corresponding Mach number would be roughly 13. If one is to look even further, one must consider the probability and the possibility of satellite rockets and rockets capable of leaving the gravitational field of the earth. These rockets must have a maximum velocity much greater than 13,000 ft. per sec. However, it will be also true that the maximum velocities of these rockets will be reached only at extreme altitudes (of the order of 100 miles) where the density of the atmosphere is so low as to make the aerodynamical forces negligible. Therefore, the most important range of speed to be investigated is the range corresponding to flight altitudes much lower than 100 miles or, more exactly, 50 miles. At this altitude,

the



Let us assume that the deviation of the wind tunnel is corrected by a very large number in the following way

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We first calculate the pressure ratio } \frac{p_0}{p_1} &= (1 + 0.2 \times 10^2)^{2.5} \\ &= 21^{2.5} = (2 \times 10.5)^{2.5} \\ &= 11.20 \times 3760 = 42,100 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Area ratio } \frac{A}{A_0} = \frac{1}{M} \left( \frac{1 + 0.2 M^2}{1.2} \right)^3 = \frac{1}{10} \left( \frac{21}{1.2} \right)^3 = 535$$

Mass number after several checks at test section,

$$v_2^2 = \frac{1 + \frac{\gamma_2}{2} M_2^2}{\gamma_2 M_2^2} = \frac{21}{140 - 0.2} = 0.15$$

$$\therefore \frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{1}{0.15} \left( \frac{1 + 0.2}{1.2} \right)^3 = 1.591 ; \quad \frac{A_0}{A_1} = \frac{535}{1.591} = 336$$

11.  $\frac{1}{x^2} = x^{-2}$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^{-2} = -2x^{-3} = -\frac{2}{x^3}$$

12.  $x^2 = x^2$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^2 = 2x$$

13.  $x^3 = x^3$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^3 = 3x^2$$

14.  $\frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^{-1} = -x^{-2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

15.  $x^4 = x^4$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^4 = 4x^3$$

16.  $x^5 = x^5$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^5 = 5x^4$$



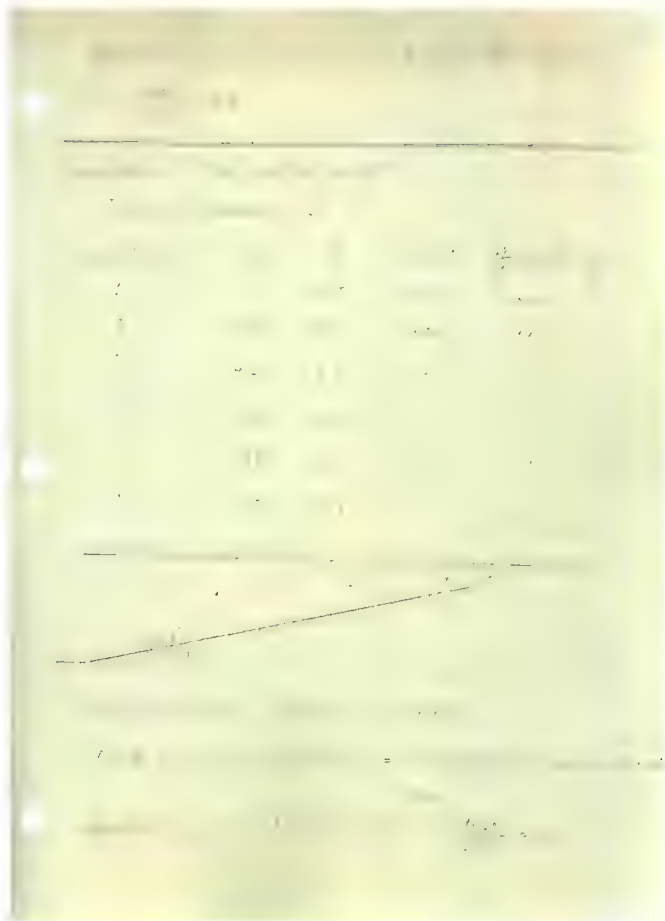




Table 1

Parameter	Value
Normal flow	365
Continuity (fixed contour starting)	112
Wedge with 13° wedge angle	11

This shows that even more improvement of hypersonic diffusion is possible by using a wedge of other shape. However, this system will not be self-starting as the second stage of the process is not self-starting.



## 1.2

### 固体力学——壳体屈曲

#### 1.2.1

##### 壳体屈曲的文献总结

这是作者为研究壳体屈曲问题而对前人工作所做的总结和评述，共有18页，未发表。

作者在1939年6月取得博士学位后，任加州理工学院助理研究员，开始对薄壳的失稳问题发生了兴趣。在深入研究这一问题之前，作者首先对前人的工作做了系统的总结和评述。

作者之所以选择这一课题进行研究，出自两方面的考虑。其一，当时第二次世界大战已经开始，飞机在战争中的重要作用益发明显，各国正在设计和制造全金属薄壳形式的飞机。薄壳结构的强度高而重量轻，当其接受的载荷超过一定数值时，壳体发生皱褶而失效，称之为屈曲。设计师要知道发生这种屈曲的临界载荷的大小，可是用经典线性理论计算得到的数值却远高于试验值，只能依赖从相当分散的试验数据中整理得到的经验关系来进行设计。其二，为了解决上述理论和实验之间的矛盾，困难很大。理论上必须放弃小变形假设，需要考虑大挠度的影响，数学上遇到求解非线性方程的困难；实验上对条件的控制和现象的观测要求有高的技术。

作者通过文献总结，剖析了前人理论的优缺点，利用了当时可能得到的实验数据，认为应该从考虑有限挠度的弹性屈曲理论入手，采用能量法求取屈曲临界载荷。这里作者已经勾画出他后来陆续发表的数篇经典论文中提出的能量跃变准则的初步轮廓。

在文章结尾，作者说明文中的观点吸收了W. L. Holland和E. E. Seckler的建议。

2)

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- (7) H. Donnell A new theory for the Buckling of Thin Cylinders Under Axial Compression & Bending.  
Trans ASME 56 795-806 (1934)

II) Circular ~~lateral~~ shell ~~with~~ without stiffening  
in Elastic Regime

- (8) A. Flugge Stabilität dünner zylindrischer  
Hohlkörper 8 (151-172 (1937))

## (II) Stiffened Cylindrical Shell

- (9) A. S. Winkler & H. Wagner Einiges über schalenförmigen Fliegengeräte  
Bauten 13: 24-292 (1936)

- (10) T. A. Taylor Stability of a Monocoque in Compression  
R.M. 1679 (1936)

- (11) H. Zienkiewicz & C. L. D. Löhner Zur Berechnung des Kraftverlaufs  
in versteiften Zylinderschalen Lf. 14 207-226 (1936) TM 66

- (12) E. Schapitz G. Krümmung Belastungsversuche  
mit einer versteiften kreiszylindrischen bei  
Kraftanwendung an einzelnen Punkten  
Lf. 14: 593-606 (1937) TM 66

- (13) N. J. Hoff Instability of Monocoque Structures in Pure Bending  
J. Appl. Mech. 12: 391-395 (1945)

(V) Large Reflection Kinn & flat Plate

- 4) ε invariance = Teuff die die Tragfähigkeit  
eines Plattenstreifens nach einer Längs- & Querschnitts-  
Zählung M. 7: 15-100 (1937)
- 15) ε invariance wie mit tragender Breite der schalen-  
Platte off. 1/24 - (1937)
- 6) A invariance & invariance "schalen-  
Licht" eine Zusammenhangs beanspruchten Platten-  
Verhalt der Realgröße off. + 122 - 100 (1937)

(VI) Plate with stiffeners

(10) J. L. Taylor

- 2) A. B. die Stahlblech gleichmäßig gedruckter  
Rechteckplatten mit Länge oder Breite in  
Längs-Richtung 8: 150 - 1937) - selbst von 7

(VII) Plastic Buckling

1) W. Karman &

- W. Focke Platten aus dem Stande  
von Zylinderformen und einige andere Faltungselemente  
an Schalen und Blechen  
ZAMM 8: 341-352 (1934)

- 1) W Kaufmann Platisches Verhalten dünnwandiger  
Hohlzylinder infolge axialer Belastung  
Ing.-Arch. 6. 114-118 (1935)
- 2) W Kaufmann Bemerkungen zum Verhalten dünnwandiger  
kreisförmigen Schalen bei der  
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- W Kaufmann Über unelastisches Verhalten  
rechteckiger Platten Ing.-Arch. 7. 16-20 (1936)
- 3) W A Dargatz Die mittragende Breite nach dem  
Bruchverhalten bei gebogenen Blechen Zf. 5. 100-105 (1938)
- (23) H Pöschel Zur Theorie der platischen Bruchung  
gerader Stäbe Der Bauingenieur 19. 499-505 (1938)

(I)

General Consideration

~~Generally speaking~~, ~~there~~ From the point of view of method of analysis there are two types of monocoque construction. One ~~type~~ which occurs in rather small aircraft has ~~rather~~ strong ~~stiffened~~ ~~and~~ wings - weak skin covering; and one which ~~appears~~ appears more recently due to the increase in size of aircraft has ~~rather~~ weak wings. For the first type of structures the buckling always occurs between the ribs and the stiffened sheet can be considered as simply supported between the wings. The current American practice ~~is to assume~~ the validity of Timmer's beam hypothesis and ~~use for the~~ determine the effective moment of inertia of the section by means of effective width of the sheet. H. Wagner (9) and H. Schmitt and H. Köster (11) suggested the method of taking the system of stiffeners + wings as an statically <sup>which is assumed</sup> ~~indeterminate~~ <sup>and taking the</sup> ~~beam~~ <sup>replacing the</sup> diagonal bracing. ~~Thus the problem is reduced~~ Thus the problem is reduced to that of <sup>rigid</sup> airship structure. However, from the experience of Wagner tension fields from theory, this



method of analysis tends to give very conservative (6)  
+ heavy structure.

The second type of structure which has weak  
rings, ~~usually buckles with rings~~ with two or three rings,  
usually buckle with ~~the~~ sheet.

Due to its recent occurrence the type of structure  
has never been satisfactorily studied - a method  
of analysis is still to be developed.  $\frac{J}{N} = \frac{\tau_{av} \cdot t^3}{12}$   
made some calculation <sup>on the structure</sup> but there are a number  
of <sup>new</sup> assumptions which ~~are~~ <sup>seem</sup> doubtful to ~~be present~~  
~~represent~~

Before ~~beginning~~ <sup>to</sup> discuss such complicated structure it seems  
essential to understand the fundamental principles  
of the buckling phenomenon, ~~and the study of~~  
the elementary components of the ~~structure~~ <sup>sheet</sup>  
failure is such an attempt.

However, before the discussion of such complicated  
structure, it is useful to have a clear understanding  
of the buckling & related phenomena. In the literature  
of thin shell structure, it is frequent that the writers  
do not emphasize the difference between buckling ~~the~~  
load and maximum load. It is ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~point of~~  
note that the "very small deflection theory" can

at most give the elastic buckling load of the structure. The condition beyond the buckling load is very complicated. If the buckling load is <sup>rather</sup> low and the waves <sup>i.e., deflection is not too great</sup> shallower, then it can be expected that there is no place in the sheet where the elastic limit is exceeded. Then we can calculate the relation between load and deflection by using large deflection theory ~~and assuming~~ <sup>and</sup> Hook's and Hook's law. The assumption of large deflection  $\delta$  and consequently the resulting non-linear differential equation is necessary for the reason that even <sup>in the case of</sup> rather shallow wave, the maximum ~~normal~~ deflection in normal direction may amount to 100 times the sheet thickness.

But if the deflection involves very small radius of curvature at the initial buckling load is high [as is the case for curved sheet], then there must be some place in the sheet where <sup>the</sup> yielding point is exceeded. <sup>Hence</sup> not only that we have to take into account the large deflection ~~theory~~, but also the plastic flow of the material. But here the <sup>Kirchhoff</sup> well-known theory of

plastic buckling with two elastic moduli is not sufficient. -- Because not only the plastic regions are ~~entirely~~ localized, but the bending stress usually exceeds the direct ~~compression~~ stress & so the correct diagram of stress distribution is that of Fig. 1a instead of Fig. 1b. 8)

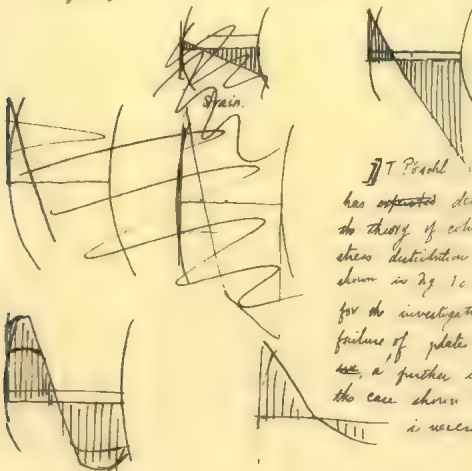


Fig. 1a

Fig. 1b

for another thick plate & shell  
All the theory of plastic buckling with two elastic moduli is developed by <sup>W. Koiter (1951)</sup> W. Koiter (1951) & W. Koiter (1951) & W. Koiter (1951). However, in their calculation, as the Koiter's hypothesis is

retained. But due to the fact <sup>that usually for all adiabatic loading</sup> only thick plates & shells fail by plastic buckling, it seems necessary to combine with R. V. Southwell's more general theory (1) to give a ~~not~~ satisfactory solution.

(II)  
Plate

From the above consideration, it is quite evident that the load after buckling is a complicated matter. The question whether the load will increase or decrease depends upon the ~~character of the~~ buckling load and characteristics of the shell. If the load still increases after buckling, then the maximum load will be higher than the buckling load. But if the load does not increase, then the buckling load is the maximum load. In the first case, the specimen fails by yielding. In the second case, the specimen fails by instability. The degree of importance of differentiation of buckling load and maximum load.

(III)  
Plate

The first failure of a flat plate of ordinary dimensions is clearly of the first kind, i.e., plastic yielding. The plate buckles at load ~~very~~ near to the theoretical buckling load calculated from the theory of small deflection. The load increases with the deflection & the wave pattern becomes more & more complicated.

with appearance of small waves at the supported  
edges

(18)

8. Magnussen & Trefftz, and A. Kromm (16), (45), (116)  
have studied the dynamic large deflection to investigate  
the load & deflection relation after buckling. & they  
were the first to obtain the ~~theoretical~~  
calculated result which agrees with the ~~experimental~~  
experimental results. However they ~~the~~ assumed  
the in-plane stress strain relation as so the plate is  
is only expected to work at low frequency. & the  
buckling load when no plastic region appears  
there is another difficulty which is due to the  
~~nonlinear~~ <sup>nonlinear</sup> nature of the problem & the necessity of assuming  
different wave patterns for different loading -  
so rather than is inferred from the experimental  
results of the beam as shown in fig 1.

$\frac{A_0}{b}$



is impossible, by given no more independent (11)  
 of <sup>to</sup> because he assumed only one type of form

## II Independent Shell

The failure of cylindrical shell is of the same type  
 as that of isotropic, i.e. the buckling load  
 is the same for all cases. If the results  
 of experiments are [see fig. 1]

1) The large scatter of experimental results for

2) The low value of buckling stress as compared to the  
 theoretical results

3) The tendency of some large shells to ~~fail~~ <sup>fail</sup> at lower  
 stress

II The theoretical study of instability of thin cylinders  
<sup>concerning</sup> the small deflection ~~theory~~ was carried out by a  
 number of writers and was very well summarized  
 by Landau, - Timoshenko and W. Timoshenko. W. Timoshenko  
 in the later part of his paper tried to explain the  
 discrepancy by considering the end conditions more  
 carefully, ~~but~~ that is, considering the end to be  
 supported in a way which does not allow distortion  
 but is free to change of slope. But by so doing  
 he obtained a set of non-homogeneous boundary conditions  
 and therefore like an eccentrically loaded column it

... only ~~but by getting~~ ... 2)  
 testing the waves gradually, from deeper and deeper  
 in fact by golding. But ~~the~~ the experiments ~~are~~  
 show that most of the splinters fail by sudden  
 breaking accompanied by the emission of a  
 brilliant and unstable flame. ~~the~~  
~~breaking the splinters~~ W. Higgs and later L.H.

I used 2) also to witness the effect of initial  
 imperfection of the specimens. But in a case  
 of that made by Holland it was  
 to detect any initial imperfection by which

I found 2) also ~~concluded~~ ~~the~~ ~~was~~  
 under the theory to have test specimens and  
 the breaking entirely by golding. The ~~are~~ ~~are~~  
~~is~~ because for at least the test used  
 as thin steel cylinders the breaking  
 is in most completely by a twisting, just as  
 breaking occurs.

It seems at present a natural examination  
 of the theory of the shell especially developed by  
 L.E. & Love is necessary. ~~the~~ although the ~~is~~  
 assumption could be obtained it is ~~is~~ ~~is~~  
 to see theory of finite deflection & examine the ~~is~~  
 under finite deflection. [See 2) 2) ~~the~~ ~~is~~]

by the experimental fact that the decrease in the  
between classical theory and experiment is large  
for the case of water. The decrease in the  
the decrease in the decrease is large. (13)

1.1.1

1.1.2

1.1.3

also usually it is found that the decrease in the  
investigate, the building, the decrease in the decrease  
in the decrease in the decrease of water, the decrease  
some patterns and the decrease in the decrease of  
building process are very decrease.

II)

### Curve sheet

The curve sheet can be considered as an intermediate  
between the flat state and the decrease in the decrease  
the way it falls ~~the~~ can be either by gold, the  
plate is by instability, as opposed to the decrease in the decrease  
it is the small ~~the~~ then it falls like state when  
it is large it falls by the decrease. This is clearly shown.













## 1.2.2

## The Buckling of Spherical Shells by External Pressure

## 球壳外压屈曲

这是作者发表于1940年的“The Buckling of Spherical Shells by External Pressure”（球壳外压屈曲）一文的原始手稿，共有26页。稿中用比较花的草体书写的部分是Theodore von Kármán（冯·卡门）的增改。

在20世纪30年代，特别是在1930—1937年这段时期，飞机工业正在设计和生产具有全金属壳体结构的新型飞机。这种结构具有重量轻而强度高的优点。但当其受到的载荷超过某一数值，壳体发生皱瘪而失效，这种现象称之为屈曲。如果采用经典的线性理论作计算，发生屈曲的临界载荷值比实验值要大许多。飞机设计师为了安全起见，只能根据相当分散的试验数据来确定临界载荷的数值。

作者在系统地分析了前人的理论和实验工作以后，认为既然经典的线性理论能精确地预报平板的屈曲载荷以及屈曲后的状态变化，很可能在平板和具有弯曲形状的壳体发生屈曲时，这两种物理过程间存在着一个尚未认识到的本质区别。对于有初始曲率的球壳，作者认为 von Kármán 推导的非线性方程反映了这种区别，因此以这个方程为出发点。

作者为了解决有关临界载荷的矛盾，并且回答究竟多大载荷能使受压球壳屈曲失效的问题，在这篇论文中提出了有关具有弯曲形状的壳体发生屈曲的机制的新观点。作者认为：经典理论之所以失败，在于没有考虑到，在加载过程中球壳除了保持球形形以外，还可能存在多个位能更低的其他位形。壳体在受到外界干扰时，会被激发而从球形形跃变到位能较低的某个位形上去。因而作者提出：有必要区分经典线性理论所给出的“上”屈曲载荷以及使壳体发生有限变形的屈曲时的“下”屈曲载荷。前者可以在试验中小心避免不对称等初始缺陷而达到，而在设计中所采用的临界载荷只能是后者。

由于作者的计算结果确实和试验值很接近，上述理论很快被学术界和工程界所接受。

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The Buckling of Spherical Shells by External Pressure

K. von Kármán and Hsue-shen Tsien

## Introduction

The theory of thin shells was developed ~~by~~ <sup>He assumed</sup> ~~by~~ A. E. N. Love, ~~based upon the fundamental assumption that the deflection~~ from the ~~its~~ unloaded position is small, and thus he obtained ~~a~~ <sup>an</sup> ~~included~~ only the quadratic ~~terms~~ in the energy expression and obtained a linear differential equation for calculating the equilibrium position of the shell. ~~This theory was used by all investigators to obtain the buckling load of thin shells.~~ In the case of cylindrical shells of uniform thickness, under the action of <sup>uniform</sup> axial pressure was calculated by R. Lorentz, R. V. Southwell, S. Timoshenko, K. v. Tokke, Landau, K. v. Sanden and F. Tokke, H. Hügge and L. H. Emnell, and others. The same problem was also investigated experimentally by many authors, especially by E. E. Lindgren and L. H. Emnell. ~~The main difficulty connected with the problem is, however, the discrepancy between the theoretically calculated buckling loads and that experimentally obtained.~~ It is well known that ~~even~~ <sup>for</sup> theoretical

value  $\mu$  is 1 to 1 times higher than the experimental values.

This failure of theory must be very disconcerting to all the work in the field of applied mechanics. To remedy this situation

Flügge first considered the deviation of assumed end conditions of the cylindrical shell from that realized in the laboratory.

However, this attempt is not successful, because the end effect is not limited to the ends of the shell, it is distributed

over the whole length of the shell, and the effect is

the radius of the shell, and the thickness.

The cylinders tested, however, usually have a length much longer

than twice this value. Furthermore, the end effect increases

with the increase of the wave number until shell

failure sets in. However, experimental evidence indicates

that the failure of cylindrical shells under compression

is not progressive but very rapid.

Another attempt was made by W. Flügge and later by L.N.

Timoshenko to improve the theoretical bending line by

introducing a correction to the form of shell from the

theoretical curve, and then determining the bending line





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times the shell thickness. If these scales ~~are~~ such a deviation <sup>in shape</sup> of cylinder, it ~~must~~ be easily observed by eye. This is not substantiated by ~~actual~~ experience. Secondly, the failure of a cylindrical shell is not necessarily a plastic failure (yielding), especially when the wall of the cylinder is very thin. In laboratory, it is observed that the buckling waves can be completely taken out by ~~removing the load~~ <sup>applying a reverse load</sup>. Therefore, the phenomenon must be completely elastic, instead of being plastic as assumed in L. H. Donnell's explanation.

A similar situation exists in the case buckling of spherical shells <sup>under uniform external pressure</sup>. The theoretical buckling load <sup>equation</sup> based upon Love's ~~investigation~~ <sup>theory</sup> is calculated by R. Vowles, E. Schuster and A. van der Neut. While ~~the~~ <sup>experimental</sup> ~~work~~ <sup>work</sup> has been done on this problem, ~~no data~~ <sup>no data</sup> has been published, at least to the author's knowledge, ~~any~~ <sup>some</sup> tests ~~made~~ <sup>made</sup> on ~~Al-Bit~~ <sup>Al-Bit</sup> by >] If the buckling stress  $\sigma_c$  is defined by

$$\sigma_c = \frac{p_c}{\delta(\frac{t}{R})}$$

where  $p_c$  is the buckling pressure,  $t$  the thickness,  $R$  the

radius of the sphere, then the theory gives

$$\delta_0 = \frac{1}{4\pi(1-\nu)} E \left( \frac{t}{R} \right)$$

It is ~~over~~ Poisson's ratio  $\nu$  of  $E$  ~~is~~ Young's modulus of the material.

E. F. Lockyer & J. B. Bayley ~~which shows~~ The experimental buckling load is only about  $1/3$  that of the theoretical value.

Besides these differences ~~in the buckling load~~ <sup>theoretical</sup> and experimentally obtained buckling loads, the wave form predicted by theory is also at variance with the laboratory experience. The ~~theoretical~~ <sup>theoretical</sup> calculations show that the shell buckles in ~~as much as~~ <sup>in</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~entire~~ <sup>entire</sup> and that experiments show that the shell has a definite ~~preference~~ <sup>preference</sup> to buckle around the ~~case of~~ <sup>case of</sup> spherical shell. It is observed <sup>that the</sup> buckling wave is highly localized, being a small strip of about  $1/10$  ~~annular~~ <sup>annular</sup> and extension to theory, however, shows a wave form which covers the whole spherical surface.

All these discrepancies ~~between~~ <sup>between</sup> the theory and experimental loads - the same author to the conclusion that

[illegible]

There is very small probability of defect in the present  
statement of theory of elasticity. ~~Generally~~ the case  
of flat sheet under end compression, not only the buckling  
load is predicted accurately by the theory, but also the  
behavior of the sheet after buckling. This opinion is  
shared by Mr. Cox in his recent lecture before the Royal  
Aeronautical Society.

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with the end of an external pressure. When the deflection  
of the shell is beyond the position (1), the position  
(2) a negative internal pressure is necessary to maintain  
equilibrium as the compressed elements are trying to force  
the shell to take up the equilibrium position (1). The  
pressure deflection curve, under the assumption of negligible  
bending stiffness  $w$ , therefore, of the form shown in Fig. 1a.

The effect of the bending stiffness is to increase the  
positive external pressure necessary to hold the shell  
in equilibrium. Thus for increasing values of the bending  
stiffness of the shell, the pressure deflection curve  
will take the form as if shown in Fig. 1b.

Now the question arises; what is the desirable pressure?  
What stress will be observed in the tubing? It seems so  
the fact that the pressure referred to the position ~~curve~~  
curve A.B. is a highly unstable condition in  
~~the case~~ is ~~an~~ <sup>an</sup> ~~interesting~~ <sup>interesting</sup> ~~in~~ <sup>in</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~case~~ <sup>case</sup>  
the deformation of shape, <sup>under</sup> the <sup>influence</sup> of the <sup>pressure</sup>, the  
curve in Fig. 1b is based upon the consideration of  
equilibrium type of the deflection only, the peak in the

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curve may be lowered by an anti-symmetric type 1 deflector, ~~that is~~, part of the shell <sup>moves</sup> out while the other part moves in. In the case of buckling is a curved beam, centrally ~~load~~ located concentrically ~~load~~, K. Magnusson demonstrates that the buckling is <sup>as</sup> <sup>according to</sup> essentially incorporates to conform an anti-symmetric type of deflection. And these considerations it seems to me that the buckling load obtained is in the least corresponds to the minimum point on the curve (X) in fig. 11b. Thus the theoretical determination of the buckling load really consists of the <sup>finding</sup> determination of the point of minimum point in the load-deflection curve. This clearly brings out the deflection defect in the old theory of thin shells. The old theory, being a linear theory, is not able to give the non-linear load-deflection curve as shown in fig. 9b. All it can do <sup>only</sup> ~~do~~ to give the initial tangent to the curve, being buckling load given by the linear theory, with the, of course, a ~~to be~~ ~~to~~ ~~from the~~ ~~truth~~.

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It is believed that these simple cases will cover  
 those ~~cases~~ <sup>some</sup> in the region of buckling  
 of curved shells. Consider for example a complete  
 spherical shell under the action of uniform  
 external pressure, and assume that a deflection  
 subtended by the polar angle  $2\phi$ . Then approximately

The Classical Theory is right in stating that until the buckling load obtained by the Euler

the material, any imperceptibly de-  
viation from the spherical form involves

an increase of the potential energy, and therefore the system is stable.  $\square$

the same chemical theory, far to be seen than  
the one ~~previous~~ <sup>present</sup> corp, as it is not far away

from the potential form which involves a lower  
level of potential energy than the other.

sh. just actually jumps into the  
 sea, or, i.e. then, <sup>etc</sup> ~~carries on~~

is indicated by a constant  $\delta$  for example that a segment, the  $\delta$ th remain.

Submerged ~~1.0~~ <sup>1.5</sup> ft.  $\times$  2.5 is 50% in air water:

*[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]*

... ..



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~~Let us consider the case of a function  $f(x)$  which is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and has a finite limit at the endpoints  $a$  and  $b$ . We shall show that the function  $f(x)$  is uniformly continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $f(x)$  has a finite limit at  $a$  and  $b$ , there exists  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon/2$  for  $0 \leq x - a < \delta_1$  and  $|f(b) - f(x)| < \epsilon/2$  for  $b - \delta_2 < x \leq b$ . Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then for any  $x, y \in [a, b]$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$ , we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ .~~

~~Thus,  $f(x)$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let us now consider the case of a function  $f(x)$  which is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and has an infinite limit at one or both endpoints. We shall show that such a function is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $f(x) = 1/x$  on the interval  $(0, 1]$ . This function is continuous on  $(0, 1]$  and has an infinite limit at  $x = 0$ . We shall show that  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $(0, 1]$ .~~

~~Let  $\epsilon = 1$ . For any  $\delta > 0$ , we can choose  $x = \delta$  and  $y = \delta/2$ . Then  $|x - y| = \delta/2 < \delta$ , but  $|f(x) - f(y)| = |1/\delta - 2/\delta| = 1/\delta > 1 = \epsilon$ . Thus,  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $(0, 1]$ .~~

~~Therefore, a function which is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  is uniformly continuous if and only if it has finite limits at the endpoints  $a$  and  $b$ .~~

~~Let us now consider the case of a function  $f(x)$  which is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and has a jump discontinuity at some point  $c \in [a, b]$ . We shall show that such a function is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x \in [a, c)$  and  $f(x) = 1$  for  $x \in [c, b]$ . This function is continuous on  $[a, b]$  except at  $x = c$ , where it has a jump discontinuity. We shall show that  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $\epsilon = 1/2$ . For any  $\delta > 0$ , we can choose  $x = c - \delta/2$  and  $y = c$ . Then  $|x - y| = \delta/2 < \delta$ , but  $|f(x) - f(y)| = |0 - 1| = 1 > 1/2 = \epsilon$ . Thus,  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Therefore, a function which is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  is uniformly continuous if and only if it is continuous at every point in  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let us now consider the case of a function  $f(x)$  which is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and has a removable discontinuity at some point  $c \in [a, b]$ . We shall show that such a function is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x \in [a, c)$  and  $f(c) = 1$ . This function is continuous on  $[a, b]$  except at  $x = c$ , where it has a removable discontinuity. We shall show that  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Let  $\epsilon = 1/2$ . For any  $\delta > 0$ , we can choose  $x = c - \delta/2$  and  $y = c$ . Then  $|x - y| = \delta/2 < \delta$ , but  $|f(x) - f(y)| = |0 - 1| = 1 > 1/2 = \epsilon$ . Thus,  $f(x)$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .~~

~~Therefore, a function which is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  is uniformly continuous if and only if it is continuous at every point in  $[a, b]$ .~~

Energy Expression and Equation of Equilibrium

To calculate the load deflection curve of a sphere<sup>or</sup>  
under uniform external pressure & also obtain  
~~the buckling load, an exact computation of the energy~~  
of the shell or its equation of equilibrium is necessary,  
instead of the ~~simpler~~ linearized equations in Love's theory.  
~~However a guess consideration would be to compute~~

Therefore the following set of simplifying assumptions were made: ~~besides the usually made in the above, the shell~~

1. (1) The solid angle of segment is small.
2. (2) The deflection is rotationally symmetric, ~~rotated~~ <sup>parallel</sup> to the axis of symmetry.
3. (3) The deflection of any element of the shell is ~~rotated~~ <sup>parallel</sup> to the axis of symmetry.
4. (4) The effect of lateral contraction is neglected, i.e., ~~at~~ Poisson's ratio is assumed to be zero.

Assumptions (11) & (13) will give higher buckling value than it would be if those restrictions are removed.

② Assumption (1) will not effect the buckling load, because  
 \* The "Derriving" of the critical load is based on the  
 under action of a concentrated load on a cantilever beam.

the unloading of the system is in accordance with the law of conservation of energy. The work done by the external forces is equal to the change in the internal energy of the system.

Let us suppose that the amount of the internal energy of the system is  $U$ . Then the work done by the external forces is  $W$ .

So: the indicator of the work done in the calculation is the change in the internal energy of the system. The work done by the external forces is equal to the change in the internal energy of the system.

It can be seen from the above that the work done by the external forces is equal to the change in the internal energy of the system.

The ~~total~~ length of the element is  $l$ . The work done by the external forces is  $W$ .

So: the indicator of the work done in the calculation is the change in the internal energy of the system.

After deformation, the length is  $l'$ .

So: the indicator of the work done in the calculation is the change in the internal energy of the system.

Therefore, the strain energy due to the extension of the element of the shell is given by

$$E = \frac{dU}{dl} \cdot \frac{dl}{d\epsilon} = \frac{dU}{d\epsilon} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

Hence, the strain energy due to the extension of the element of the shell is given by

$$U = \int_0^l \frac{E \cdot l}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\cos \theta} - 1 \right)^2 \pi R \cos \theta \cdot d\epsilon$$

$$U = \frac{E \cdot l^3}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\cos \theta} - 1 \right)^2 \pi R \cos \theta \cdot d\epsilon$$

$$= \frac{E \cdot l^3}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\cos \theta} - 1 \right)^2 \pi R \cos \theta \cdot d\epsilon$$

(11)

Superimposed the  $\sin \alpha$  wave.  
 The two curvatures of the shell at ~~any~~ point P before twisting  
 deflection started are ~~not~~ equal to  $R$ . After deflection,  
 the curvature of meridian ~~section~~ <sup>in the plane</sup> is equal to

$$\frac{d\theta}{ds} = \frac{\frac{d\theta}{d\alpha}}{\frac{ds}{d\alpha}} = \frac{\frac{d\theta}{d\alpha}}{R \cos \alpha}$$

Glance)  
 The change in curvature of meridian section is ~~the~~

$$\frac{\frac{d\theta}{d\alpha}}{R \cos \alpha} - \frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R} \left[ \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} - 1 \right]$$

Similarly, the change in curvature of a section  
 in other direction orthogonal to  
 the meridian direction ~~is~~ plane is

$$\frac{1}{R} \left[ \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha} - 1 \right]$$

The bending strain energy is then ~~due to bending~~ the strain

$$W_2 = \frac{E t^3}{24} \int_0^\beta 2\pi R^2 \sin \alpha d\alpha \frac{1}{R^2} \left[ \left( \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} - 1 \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha} - 1 \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{E R^3}{2} \left( \frac{t}{R} \right)^3 \frac{2\pi}{12} \int_0^\beta \sin \alpha \left[ \left( \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} - 1 \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha} - 1 \right)^2 \right] d\alpha \quad (12)$$

~~displacement~~ The work done by  
 the potential energy of the external pressure is equal to the  
 pressure times the volume ~~caused under the shell~~ <sup>caused under the shell</sup> then,  
 the potential energy is

$$W_3 = \int_0^\beta p \pi R^2 d\alpha = p \left[ \pi R^2 \frac{\alpha}{2} \right]_0^\beta = \frac{p}{2} \pi R^2 \beta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi \int_0^{\beta} R^2 \sin^2 \alpha \tan \theta R \cos \alpha d\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \pi \int_0^{\beta} R^3 \sin^2 \alpha \tan \theta \cos \alpha d\alpha$$

The total energy,  $W$ , of the system is the sum of the strain energy and the potential energy of the external pressure. Thus, from equation (1), (2), (3)

$$\frac{W}{R^3 \pi} = E \left( \frac{L}{R} \right) \int_0^{\beta} \left( \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \theta} - 1 \right)^2 \sin \alpha d\alpha + \frac{E \left( \frac{L}{R} \right)}{12} \int_0^{\beta} \left( \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \theta} \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} - 1 \right)^2 \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \theta} d\alpha + p \int_0^{\beta} \sin^2 \alpha \cos \theta \tan \theta d\alpha \quad (4)$$

At the equilibrium position, the total energy must be a minimum, therefore, the equation of equilibrium can be obtained by finding the relation between  $\theta$  and  $\alpha$  which will make the integral expression (4) a minimum. This thing the calculus of variations, the following equation is obtained.

$$2E \left( \frac{L}{R} \right) \left[ \frac{\sin \alpha \cos \alpha}{\cos \theta} \tan \theta \left( \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \theta} - 1 \right) \right] + \frac{E \left( \frac{L}{R} \right)}{6} \left[ \cos \theta \left( \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \theta} + \tan \alpha \right) - \cos^2 \theta \left( \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \theta} + \tan \alpha \right) \right] + \frac{\sin \alpha \cos \alpha \tan \theta}{\cos \theta} \left( \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} \right)^2 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta \tan \theta}{\cos \theta} \frac{d^2 \theta}{d\alpha^2} + p \sin^2 \alpha \cos \theta \sec^2 \theta = 0 \quad (5)$$

together with the boundary condition

$$\begin{aligned} \theta = 0 & \quad \text{at} \quad \alpha = 0 \\ \theta = \beta & \quad \text{at} \quad \alpha = \beta \end{aligned} \quad (5a)$$

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Both equations (14) & (15) are unsuitable to handle, however, a great simplification results if  $\delta$ , the angular extension of the buckling region is small. This is confirmed by experiments. Therefore, by expanding the sine & cosine functions  $\delta$  into a power series and retaining only terms of  $\delta^2$  order & neglecting  $\delta^4$  and  $\delta^6$  terms, equations (14) & (15) are reduced to:

$$\frac{M}{R^3 \pi} = \frac{E t^3}{12} \int_0^{\delta} (b^2 - x^2)^2 dx + \frac{E t^3}{12} \int_0^{\delta} \left[ \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{dz}{dx} \right)^2 \right] x dx + \beta \int_0^{\delta} x^2 y^2 dx \quad (16)$$

and

$$x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{y}{x} = \frac{6}{E t^3} x b(b^2 - x^2) + \frac{6\beta}{E t^3} x^2 \quad (17)$$

these are the simplified energy expression and the equation of equilibrium respectively.

In order to calculate the maximum deflection  $\delta$  at the center, the ordinate  $z_0$  (Fig. 1) at the center has to be first computed. By means of the boundary condition that  $z=0$  at  $x=\delta$ , the following relation is obtained:

$$z_0 + \int_0^{\delta} \frac{dz}{dx} dx = 0$$

(13)

$$\text{On } z_0 = R \int_0^{\beta} \tan \theta \cos \theta d\theta \quad (1)$$

Before deformation, the ordinate at the center is equal to

$$(R/1 - \cos \beta)$$

Therefore the deflection  $\delta$  at the center ~~can be calculated as~~

$$\delta = R \left\{ (1 - \cos \beta) - \int_0^{\beta} \tan \theta \cos \theta d\theta \right\} \quad (7)$$

If  $\beta$  is again assumed to be small, equation (7) is simplified to

$$\delta = R \left\{ \frac{\beta^2}{2} - \int_0^{\beta} \theta d\theta \right\} \quad (8)$$

#### Approximate solution by Rayleigh-Ritz method

To calculate the load-deflection curve, one can either solve the differential equation (4), or minimize the integral (6) directly by means of Rayleigh-Ritz method. Due to the non-linear character of the differential equation (4), it is difficult, if not impossible to solve it analytically. Therefore ~~in~~ in this paper, the Rayleigh-Ritz method is used. In this method, a plausible form of  $\delta$  deflection satisfying the boundary conditions has to be found ~~first~~. ~~Then the symmetry of deflection,~~

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1. The first part of the document is a list of names and their corresponding addresses. The names are: John A. Smith, John B. Smith, John C. Smith, John D. Smith, John E. Smith, John F. Smith, John G. Smith, John H. Smith, John I. Smith, John J. Smith, John K. Smith, John L. Smith, John M. Smith, John N. Smith, John O. Smith, John P. Smith, John Q. Smith, John R. Smith, John S. Smith, John T. Smith, John U. Smith, John V. Smith, John W. Smith, John X. Smith, John Y. Smith, John Z. Smith. The addresses are: 123 Main St., 456 Main St., 789 Main St., 101 Main St., 202 Main St., 303 Main St., 404 Main St., 505 Main St., 606 Main St., 707 Main St., 808 Main St., 909 Main St., 1010 Main St., 1111 Main St., 1212 Main St., 1313 Main St., 1414 Main St., 1515 Main St., 1616 Main St., 1717 Main St., 1818 Main St., 1919 Main St., 2020 Main St., 2121 Main St., 2222 Main St., 2323 Main St., 2424 Main St., 2525 Main St., 2626 Main St., 2727 Main St., 2828 Main St., 2929 Main St., 3030 Main St., 3131 Main St., 3232 Main St., 3333 Main St., 3434 Main St., 3535 Main St., 3636 Main St., 3737 Main St., 3838 Main St., 3939 Main St., 4040 Main St., 4141 Main St., 4242 Main St., 4343 Main St., 4444 Main St., 4545 Main St., 4646 Main St., 4747 Main St., 4848 Main St., 4949 Main St., 5050 Main St., 5151 Main St., 5252 Main St., 5353 Main St., 5454 Main St., 5555 Main St., 5656 Main St., 5757 Main St., 5858 Main St., 5959 Main St., 6060 Main St., 6161 Main St., 6262 Main St., 6363 Main St., 6464 Main St., 6565 Main St., 6666 Main St., 6767 Main St., 6868 Main St., 6969 Main St., 7070 Main St., 7171 Main St., 7272 Main St., 7373 Main St., 7474 Main St., 7575 Main St., 7676 Main St., 7777 Main St., 7878 Main St., 7979 Main St., 8080 Main St., 8181 Main St., 8282 Main St., 8383 Main St., 8484 Main St., 8585 Main St., 8686 Main St., 8787 Main St., 8888 Main St., 8989 Main St., 9090 Main St., 9191 Main St., 9292 Main St., 9393 Main St., 9494 Main St., 9595 Main St., 9696 Main St., 9797 Main St., 9898 Main St., 9999 Main St.

The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been  
 elected to the office of Justice of the Peace for the year 1888.  
 The names are given in alphabetical order of their surnames.  
 The names of the persons who have been elected to the office of Justice of the Peace for the year 1888 are as follows:

1000

$$\frac{f}{P} = \frac{1}{63} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots \right) = \frac{1}{63}$$

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem of the existence of solutions of the system of equations (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . It is shown that the system of equations (1) has solutions for arbitrary values of the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  if and only if the condition  $\alpha + \beta = 1$  is satisfied.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} = 0 \quad \text{at} \quad q = 0$$

February 5.  $\frac{1}{2}$  ...  
 ...  
 ...

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2}$$



~~Introducing a superior~~ <sup>and</sup> ~~Eq (11) can be rewritten as~~

$$\frac{\delta}{E} = \frac{1}{E} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} - 3 \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{16 \delta^3}{R_2 \beta^3} + \frac{8 \delta^3}{3 \beta^3} \right) \quad (16)$$

~~From plot of  $\delta/E$  vs  $\beta$ , it is found~~  
 that ~~the~~ load vs deflection curve has an inflection point indicated in Fig. 2, when  $\beta > \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{R_2}$  or

$$\frac{1}{R_2} < \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \beta^2$$

If  $\frac{1}{R_2}$  is larger than or equal to  $\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \beta^2$ , the load increases with the deflection, without having a peak and a minimum; for  $\frac{1}{R_2} = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \beta^2$ , the curve for load vs deflection ~~curve~~ has an inflection point with horizontal tangent.

~~Let's find now the minimum~~  
 Minimum values of the function  $\frac{\delta}{E}$  vs  $\beta$ .  
 To this purpose let us ~~find~~ <sup>find</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> ~~values of  $\beta$  for which  $\frac{\delta}{E}$  is a minimum~~  
 By differentiation of (16), with respect to  $\beta^2$  ~~we~~  
~~obtain~~ <sup>we obtain</sup> for the value of  $\beta^2$ , where  $\frac{\delta}{E}$  is a minimum is obtained as  

$$\beta^2 = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$$
 and substituting this value of  $\beta^2$  in (16) ~~we~~  
 the following relation is obtained



(16a)

It ~~will~~ be particularly clear when Eq. (16) is written in the following form

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{105} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \left[ 21 - 63 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \frac{t}{g^2} + (48 \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right)^2 + 10) \frac{(t/\tau)^2}{g^2} \right]$$

for ~~certain values of~~ <sup>being</sup>  $\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \frac{t}{g^2}$  <sup>as a parameter</sup> ~~of~~ <sup>of curves</sup> expressing the relation between  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$  &  $\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \frac{t}{g^2}$  can be drawn. Fig. 4) Then the relation given by Eq. (20) represents the envelope of the family of curves.



$$\beta = \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{L^2} + \frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{L^2}}$$

From your last note, the quantity  $\beta$  is a function of  $\frac{1}{L}$  and  $\frac{1}{L^2}$ .

$$\frac{\beta}{L} = \frac{4}{3} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{10}{3} + \frac{10}{3} \frac{1}{L^2} + \frac{10}{3} \frac{1}{L^4}}$$

This relation is plotted in Fig. 5.

$$\beta = 1.466 \frac{1}{L}$$

The value of  $\beta$  is a function of  $\frac{1}{L}$  and  $\frac{1}{L^2}$ . It is not the same as the value of  $\beta$  in the previous section. It is **become** a function of  $\frac{1}{L}$  and  $\frac{1}{L^2}$ .

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$$\beta = 1.466 \frac{1}{L}$$

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12. *near the door*

4. Exercises with the Pol. p. 1. 1.

[illegible]

6-2450 Meigs

Q4.4  $E = 14.510 \text{ MeV}$   $\epsilon = .020$   $L = \frac{1}{4} \text{ cm}$

1. - After surveying to

5-0154 E-4

Estimated 1890 population 10,000

1950, 29/11/50, 100, 15, 2 hours 10 - 40

190: 12.5. 1900, 10. 12. 1900

then I. H. H. reproduce with 100%

Sept 10 - 1914

$\bar{x} = 46.15 \text{ ft}$        $\bar{y} = 14.44 \text{ ft}$

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function  $f(x)$  defined by the equation

14. 23. 5

*[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]*

1871

*[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]*

2010

no equal

1712

1. *Delaware* *del.*

*[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]*

*[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]*







### 1. 2. 3

## The Buckling of Thin Cylindrical Shells under Axial Compression

### 柱壳轴压屈曲

这是作者发表于 1941 年的 “The Buckling of Thin Cylindrical Shells under Axial Compression” (柱壳轴压屈曲) 一文的部分手稿和算草。作者反复推敲, 前后写了 5 份文稿, 这里选印每份文稿的前两页; 为论文所做的演算草稿有 800 多页, 这里选印其中的 18 页; 再选印了存放手稿的信袋的正面。总共选印了 29 页。

作者在 1940 年发表的 “The Buckling of Spherical Shells by External Pressure” (球壳外压屈曲) 一文中, 已经提出了计算屈曲临界载荷的能量跃变准则。这里, 作者将这一准则推广到应用更为广泛的柱壳的情况。

作者为了求取圆柱壳屈曲的临界载荷、围绕寻找壳体可能达到的位形, 进行了大量推导和演算, 手稿长达 800 多页。这里仅选用其中开头和最后的部分。开头部分选了 1—3 页及 117—121 页, 这部分有圆柱壳非线性方程的推导, 并对位移  $(u, v, w)$  的形式作了反复试探和计算, 力图正确表达柱壳发生菱状皱折的形态。最后, 作者在 733—736 页上终于找到了比较满意的有关位移  $w$  的形式, 在 741 页上给出了特征方程, 746 页上给出缩短量  $e$  与端部应力  $\sigma$  的关系, 750 页是关于特征值  $\lambda$  的数值计算, 784—786 页是部分计算的表格。

请注意作者在存放手稿的信袋上写的 “Final” (最后的定稿) 和 “Nothing is Final” (没有什么认识是最后的) 的字样, 其中含有深刻的哲理, 说明了真理的相对性, 科学家追求真理是永无止境的。

First Draft

1

*Shen*  
THE BUCKLING OF CYLINDRICAL SHELLS UNDER  
AXIAL COMPRESSION

Th. von Karman and Hsue-shen Tsien

*Californian Institute of Technology*

In two previous papers (Ref.1 and Ref.2), the authors have discussed in detail the inadequacy of the classical theory of thin shells in explaining the buckling phenomenon of ~~both the cylindrical shells and the spherical shells.~~ It was shown that not only the calculated buckling load is 4 to 5 times higher than that experimentally observed, but the buckling wave pattern found is also different from that predicted. *(it was pointed out, furthermore, that)* different explanations for this discrepancy advanced by L.M. Donnell and <sup>(Ref.3)</sup> ~~W. P. Timoshenko~~ <sup>(Ref.4)</sup> are untenable. When certain conclusions drawn from these explanations are compared with the experimental facts. The authors are then led by ~~both the~~ <sup>A</sup> theoretical investigation on cylindrical shells (Ref.1) ~~and a model experiment (Ref.2) on thin columns supported by~~ with non-linear elastic support *to the belief that the* buckling phenomenon of curved shells can only be explained by means of ~~the~~ non-linear large deflection theory. *for the two cases investigated the critical point seems to be the rapid drop in load necessary to keep the shell in equilibrium once the shell starts to buckle.* This characteristic of dropping load shows, first of all, that there is a release of elastic energy <sup>the</sup> ~~once the~~ <sup>slight on the shell</sup> buckling has started, and thus explains the observed rapidity.

2

of the buckling process. Furthermore, this characteristic also brings in the possibility of a decrease in <sup>the</sup> buckling load when there <sup>are</sup> slight imperfections in the test specimen <sup>and</sup> or when there are vibrations during the testing process.

In this paper, the authors will show by means of an approximate calculation the dropping load characteristic ~~in case~~ of a uniform, thin cylindrical shell under axial compression. Consequently, they hope that they have thus offered an acceptable explanation of the observed facts.

# Stresses in the Median Surface and the Expression for the Total Energy of the System

If  $u, v$ , and  $w$  <sup>(2.1)</sup> are the displacement of a point on the median surface of the shell in the axial,  $x$ , direction, the circumferential,  $y$ , direction, and the radial direction, then the unit strains in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions,  $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y$  and the unit shear  $\gamma_{xy}$  at a point in the median surface can be expressed in the following form, including terms up to second order:

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_x &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2 \\ \epsilon_y &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right)^2 - \frac{w}{R} \\ \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{aligned} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $R$  is the radius of the undeformed median surface of the shell. The stresses <sup>the</sup> and strains in the median surface of the shell are, however, related to each other by the <sup>following</sup> expressions.

THE BUCKLING OF THIN CYLINDRICAL SHELLS  
UNDER AXIAL COMPRESSION

T. von Kármán and Hsue-shen Tsien  
California Institute of Technology

In two previous papers (Ref.1 and Ref.2), the authors have discussed in detail the inadequacy of the classical theory of thin shells in explaining the buckling phenomenon of cylindrical and spherical shells. It was shown that not only the calculated buckling load is  $10^3$  to  $10^4$  times higher than that experimentally observed, but the buckling wave pattern ~~is~~ <sup>the</sup> also different from that predicted. Furthermore, it was pointed out that the different explanations for this discrepancy advanced by L.H. Donnell (Ref.3) and W. Flügge (Ref.4) are untenable when certain conclusions drawn from these explanations are compared with the experimental facts. The authors are then led by a theoretical investigation on spherical shells (Ref.1) to the belief that the buckling phenomenon of curved shells can only be explained by means of non-linear large deflection theory. This point of view is further substantiated by a model experiment on thin columns with non-linear elastic support (Ref.2). It is evident from ~~the two cases investigated~~ <sup>these two cases</sup> that the load necessary to keep the shell in equilibrium drops very rapidly with increase in wave amplitude once the shell started to buckle. This



## THE BUCKLING OF THIN CYLINDRICAL SHELLS

### UNDER AXIAL COMPRESSION

Theodore von Kármán and Hsue-shen Tsien  
California Institute of Technology

In two previous papers (Ref. 1 and Ref. 2), the authors have discussed in detail the inadequacy of the classical theory of thin shells in explaining the buckling phenomenon of cylindrical and spherical shells. It was shown that not only the calculated buckling load is 5 to 8 times higher than that found by experiments, but the observed wave pattern of the buckled shell is also different from that predicted. Furthermore, it was pointed out that the different explanations for this discrepancy advanced by L. M. Dennell (Ref. 3) and W. Flügge (Ref. 4) are untenable when certain conclusions drawn from these explanations are compared with the experimental facts. The authors are then led by a theoretical investigation of spherical shells (Ref. 1) *the authors come to the* to the belief that the buckling phenomenon of curved shells can only be explained by means of non-linear large deflection theory. This point of view is *11-23* further substantiated by a *model experiment on thin cylinders* with non-linear elastic support (Ref. 2). It is evident from these two investigations that the load necessary to keep the shell in equilibrium drops very rapidly with increase in wave amplitude once the shell started to buckle. This characteristic shows, first of all, *that* there is a release of the elastic energy stored in the shell once the buckling has started, and thus explains the observed rapidity of the buckling process. Furthermore, *it also brings in the possibility of a decrease in the buckling load when there are slight imperfections in the test specimen and when there are vibrations during the testing process.*

In this paper, the authors will show by means of an approximate

calculation—that in case of a thin uniform cylindrical shell under axial compression, the load sustained by the shell drops with increasing deflection.

Consequently, ~~they~~ hope that they have thus offered an acceptable explanation of the results of the calculations ~~as well as for the~~ ~~observed facts.~~

actual design mentions

Stresses in the Median Surface and the  
Expression for the Total Energy of the System

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be measured in the axial and the circumferential direction in the median surface of the undeformed cylindrical shell and  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$  be the components of displacement of a point on the median surface of the shell in the  $X$ -direction, the  $Y$ -direction, and the radial direction. Then the unit strains in the  $X$  and  $Y$ -directions,  $\epsilon_x$ ,  $\epsilon_y$  and the unit shear  $\gamma_{xy}$  at a point in the median surface can be expressed in the following forms, including terms up to second order:

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_x &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} \right)^2 \\ \epsilon_y &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial Y} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y} \right)^2 - \frac{w}{R} \\ \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y}\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

where  $R$  is the radius of the undeformed median surface of the shell. The stresses and the strains in the median surface of the shell are, however, related to each other by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_x &= \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\epsilon_x + \nu \epsilon_y) \\ \sigma_y &= \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\epsilon_y + \nu \epsilon_x) \\ \tau_{xy} &= \frac{E}{2(1+\nu)} \gamma_{xy}\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

where  $E$  is Young's modulus of elasticity and  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio. Therefore by substituting Eq. (1) into Eq. (2), the following connections between the components of stress in the median surface and the components of displacement of the median surface are obtained:

# THE BUCKLING OF THIN CYLINDRICAL SHELLS

## UNDER AXIAL COMPRESSION

Theodore von Kármán and Hsue-shen Tsien  
California Institute of Technology

In two previous papers (Ref. 1 and Ref. 2), the authors have discussed in detail the inadequacy of the classical theory of thin shells in explaining the buckling phenomenon of cylindrical and spherical shells. It was shown that not only the calculated buckling load is 3 to 5 times higher than that found by experiments, but the observed wave pattern of the buckled shell is also different from that predicted. Furthermore, it was pointed out that the different explanations for this discrepancy advanced by L. H. Donnell (Ref. 3) and W. Flügge (Ref. 4) are untenable when certain conclusions drawn from these explanations are compared with the experimental facts. The authors are thus led by a theoretical investigation on spherical shells (Ref. 1) to the belief that the buckling phenomenon of curved shells can only be explained by means of non-linear large deflection theory. This point of view is further substantiated by a model experiment on thin columns with non-linear elastic support (Ref. 2). It is evident from these two investigations that the load necessary to keep the shell in equilibrium drops very rapidly with increase in wave amplitude once the shell started to buckle. This characteristic shows, first of all, that there is a release of the elastic energy stored in the shell once the buckling has started, and thus explains the observed rapidity of the buckling process. Furthermore, it also brings in the possibility of a decrease in the buckling load when there are slight imperfections in the test specimen and when there are vibrations during the testing process.

In this paper, the authors will show by means of an approximate



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calculation that in case of a thin uniform cylindrical shell under axial compression, the load sustained by the shell drops with increasing deflection. Consequently, they hope that they have thus offered an acceptable explanation of the observed facts.

Stresses in the Median Surface and the  
Expression for the Total Energy of the System

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be measured in the axial and the circumferential directions in the median surface of the undeformed cylindrical shell and  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$  be the components of displacement of a point on the median surface of the shell in the  $X$ -direction, the  $Y$ -direction, and the radial direction. Then the unit strains in the  $X$  and  $Y$ -directions,  $\epsilon_x$ ,  $\epsilon_y$  and the unit shear  $\gamma_{xy}$  at a point in the median surface can be expressed in the following forms, including terms up to second order:

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_x &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial X} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} \right)^2 \\ \epsilon_y &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial Y} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y} \right)^2 - \frac{w}{R} \\ \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial Y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial X} \frac{\partial w}{\partial Y}\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

where  $R$  is the radius of the undeformed median surface of the shell. The stresses and the strains in the median surface of the shell are, however, related to each other by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_x &= \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\epsilon_x + \nu \epsilon_y) \\ \sigma_y &= \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} (\epsilon_y + \nu \epsilon_x) \\ \tau_{xy} &= \frac{E}{2(1+\nu)} \gamma_{xy}\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

where  $E$  is Young's modulus of elasticity and  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio. Therefore by substituting Eq. (1) into Eq. (2), the following connections between the components of stress in the median surface and the components of displacement of the median surface are obtained:

THE BUCKLING OF THIN CYLINDRICAL SHELLSUNDER AXIAL COMPRESSION

Theodore von Karman and Hsue-shan Tsien  
California Institute of Technology

In two previous papers (Ref. 1 and Ref. 2), the authors have discussed in detail the inadequacy of the classical theory of thin shells in explaining the buckling phenomenon of cylindrical and spherical shells. It was shown that not only the calculated buckling load is 3 to 5 times higher than that found by experiments, but the observed wave pattern of the buckled shell is also different from that predicted. Furthermore, it was pointed out that the different explanations for this discrepancy advanced by L. H. Donnell (Ref. 3) and W. Flügge (Ref. 4) are untenable when certain conclusions drawn from these explanations are compared with the experimental facts. By a theoretical investigation on spherical shells (Ref. 1) the authors were led to the belief that in general the buckling phenomenon of curved shells can only be explained by means of a non-linear large deflection theory. This point of view was substantiated by model experiments on slender columns with non-linear elastic support (Ref. 2). The non-linear characteristics of such structures causes the load necessary to keep the shell in equilibrium to drop very rapidly with increase in wave amplitude once the structure started to buckle. Thus, first of all, a part of the elastic energy stored in the shell is released once the buckling has started; this explains the observed rapidity of the buckling process. Furthermore, as it was shown in one of the previous papers (Ref. 2) the buckling load itself can be materially reduced by slight imperfections in the test specimen and vibrations during the testing process.

In this paper, the same ideas are applied to the case of a thin uniform cylindrical shell under axial compression. First it is shown by an approximate calculation that again the load sustained by the shell drops with increasing

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deflection. Then the results of this calculation are used for a more detailed discussion of the buckling process as observed in an actual testing machine.

Stresses in the Median Surface and the  
Expression for the Total Energy of the System

Let  $u$  and  $v$  be measured in the axial and the circumferential direction in the median surface of the undeformed cylindrical shell and  $u$ ,  $v$  and  $w$  be the components of displacement of a point on the median surface of the shell in the  $x$ -direction, the  $\theta$ -direction, and the radial direction. Then at an arbitrary point in the median surface the unit strains in the  $x$  and  $\theta$ -directions,  $\epsilon_x$  and  $\epsilon_\theta$  and the unit shear  $\gamma_{x\theta}$  can be expressed in the following forms, including terms up to second order:

(1)

$R$  is the radius of the undeformed median surface of the shell. The stresses and the strains in the median surface of the shell are, however, related to each other by the following equations:

(2)

where  $E$  is Young's modulus of elasticity and  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio. Therefore, by substituting Eq. (1) into Eq. (2), the following connections between the components of stress in the median surface and the components of displacement of the median surface are obtained:



The original form of the shell is spherical  
 Now suppose the deformed form of the shell is axially symmetrical

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_1 &= \theta_0 + \theta_0' f(\theta_0) = \theta_0 [1 + f'(\theta_0)] \\ R &= R_0 + R f(\theta_0) \\ &= R [1 + f(\theta_0)] \end{aligned}$$

The original length of the element is  $ds_0 = R_0 d\theta_0$

The new length of the element

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sqrt{R^2 d\theta^2 + (dR)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{R^2 [1 + f(\theta_0)]^2 [1 + f'(\theta_0)]^2 d\theta_0^2 + R_0^2 f'(\theta_0)^2 d\theta_0^2 + R^2 f'(\theta_0)^2 d\theta_0^2} \\ &= R \sqrt{\theta_0^2 [1 + f(\theta_0)]^2 [1 + f'(\theta_0) + \theta_0 f'(\theta_0)]^2 + [f'(\theta_0)]^2} d\theta_0 \end{aligned}$$

If the deflection is inextensional, in the sense that

$$(ds)_0 = (ds)$$

Then 
$$\frac{[1 + f(\theta_0)]^2 [1 + f'(\theta_0) + \theta_0 f'(\theta_0)]^2 + [f'(\theta_0)]^2 - 1}{}$$

The distance of the element from the axis is

$$R \sin \theta_0$$

before deflection.

The distance is  $R \sin \theta_1$  after deflection

$$R[1 + f(\theta_0)] \sin[\theta_0(1 + f(\theta_0))]$$

$$\sin[\theta_0 + \theta_0 f(\theta_0)]$$

The change in length of the ring  $ds =$

$$2\pi R \left[ [1 + f(\theta_0)] \sin[\theta_0(1 + f(\theta_0))] - \sin \theta_0 \right]$$

The strain energy stored in this  $ds$  is

$$\frac{1}{2} [E E] t ds$$

$$\text{now } \epsilon = [1 + f(\theta_0)] \frac{\sin[\theta_0(1 + f(\theta_0))]}{\sin \theta_0} - 1$$

$$= [1 + f(\theta_0)] \left\{ \frac{\sin[\theta_0(1 + f(\theta_0))]}{\sin \theta_0} - 1 \right\}$$

The total strain energy

$$= \frac{1}{2} E R^2 \pi \int_0^\theta \left\{ [1 + f(\theta_0)] \frac{\sin[\theta_0(1 + f(\theta_0))]}{\sin \theta_0} - 1 \right\}^2 d\theta_0$$

Potential energy of the pressure force.

$$pV \quad \text{where } V = \text{volume under the shell}$$

the volume under the shell

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{3} 2\pi R \sin \theta, \text{ etc. } R = R(\theta) \\
 &= \frac{2\pi R^3}{3} \int_0^\pi [1 + g(\theta_0)]^3 \sin \theta_0 [1 + f(\theta_0)] \left\{ [f + f(\theta_0)] + \theta_0 f'(\theta_0) \right\} d\theta_0
 \end{aligned}$$

the integral to be minimized is

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\left\{ \frac{1}{R} E \right\} \int_0^\pi \left\{ [1 + g(\theta_0)] \frac{\sin [\theta_0 [1 + f(\theta_0)]]}{\sin \theta_0} - 1 \right\}^2 \sin \theta_0 d\theta_0 \\
 &- \frac{2f}{3} \int_0^\pi [1 + g(\theta_0)]^3 \sin \theta_0 [1 + f(\theta_0)] \left\{ [1 + f(\theta_0)] + \theta_0 f'(\theta_0) \right\} d\theta_0
 \end{aligned}$$

To simplify the expression, let us put  $\theta_0 f(\theta_0) = h(\theta_0)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\left\{ 1 - \left\{ \frac{1}{R} E \right\} \int_0^\pi \left\{ [1 + g(\theta_0)] \frac{\sin (\theta_0 + h(\theta_0))}{\sin \theta_0} - 1 \right\}^2 \sin \theta_0 d\theta_0 \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - \frac{2f}{3} \int_0^\pi [1 + g(\theta_0)]^3 \sin (\theta_0 + h(\theta_0)) [1 + h'(\theta_0)] d\theta_0 \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

the isoperimetric condition is

$$\underline{[1 + g(\theta_0)]^2 [1 + h'(\theta_0)]^2 + [g'(\theta_0)]^2 - 1 = 0}$$

$$E_1 = u_0 = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \right)^2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$E_2 = 0 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - \frac{u^2}{2} + \frac{1}{2a^2} \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \right)^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$H = 0 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Differentiate (1) with respect to  $\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ ,

$$0 = \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial t}$$

$$0 = \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial t} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{a} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = 0 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Differentiate (4) with respect to  $\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ ,

$$\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^3 v}{\partial x^2 \partial t} + \frac{1}{a^2} \left[ \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^2 \partial t} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \right] = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^3 v}{\partial x^2 \partial t} - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial t} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^3 v}{\partial x^2 \partial t} - \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \right)$$

$$\left[ \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right]$$

On

$$(S^2 - nt^2) - an = 0$$

We see that the w-deflection for region 2

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$$w = kr \left[ a^2 - \theta^2 + \frac{r^2}{r_0^2} \right]$$

satisfies the biharmonic differential equation

$$-\frac{4k}{r^2} + \frac{2k}{r^2} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \underline{k = \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial r} = -\left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)$$

$$\text{Thus } w = \frac{r}{2} \left[ a^2 - \theta^2 + \frac{r^2}{r_0^2} \right], \quad \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\text{We have the relation } \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \right)^2 \\ = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right)^2$$

$$\frac{r}{r_0} = f(\theta) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right)^2$$

$$\text{Also } \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} = \frac{w}{r} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[ a^2 - \theta^2 + \frac{r^2}{r_0^2} \right] - \frac{1}{2} a^2 \\ = \frac{1}{2} a^2 - \theta^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{r_0^2}$$

$$\frac{r}{r_0} = \frac{1}{2} a^2 - \frac{1}{2} \theta^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r^2}{r_0^2} + f' \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right)$$

$$\text{Thus } -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \quad \text{or}$$


$$-\theta \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right) = f'(\theta) - \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right) \theta + f' \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right)$$

$$\text{Thus } f'(\theta) = 0 = f' \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right) \quad \text{and } f(\theta) = 0 = f \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right)$$







The  $u, v$  in the rectangular region can be obtained by returning the  figure 90° counter-clockwise and then make  $u$  negative.

$$u = -\left\{\frac{2}{6} \theta^2 - \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{2} \theta\right\}$$

$$v = -\left\{\frac{2}{2} (a^2 - \theta^2) \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) - \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^3\right\}$$

We then obtain our rule by the ratio  $\frac{v}{u}$

$$\theta = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \frac{v}{u} - \frac{u}{u}$$

$$\frac{u}{v} = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \frac{v}{u} + \frac{u}{u}$$

$$\bar{u} = \frac{u}{u} - \frac{v}{u}, \quad \bar{v} = \frac{u}{u} + \frac{v}{u}$$

Condit to p. 677 !!!

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$$\frac{dF}{R} = (f_0 + \frac{1}{2}f_1) + \frac{1}{2}f_1 \left[ \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{4} \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \frac{1}{4} \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} \right] \\ + \frac{1}{4}f_2 \left[ \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} \right]$$

$$\frac{dF}{R} = (f_0 + \frac{1}{2}f_1) + \frac{1}{2}f_1 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{4}(\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \frac{1}{4}(\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R}$$

$$\frac{\partial dF}{\partial x} = -\pi \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\pi}{R})f_1 \sin \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\pi}{R})(\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \sin \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial dF}{\partial y} = -\pi \left[ \frac{1}{2}f_1 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \sin \frac{\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 dF}{\partial x^2} = -(\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\pi}{R})^2 f_1 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + (\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 dF}{\partial y^2} = -(\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2}f_1 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 dF}{\partial x \partial y} = +(\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\frac{\pi}{R}) \sin \frac{\pi x}{R} \sin \frac{\pi y}{R} \right] \quad (\mu = \frac{\pi}{R})$$

$$\Delta \Delta F = E(\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \left[ \pi^2 \left\{ -\frac{1}{8}\mu^2 f_1^2 (\cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R}) - \frac{1}{4}\mu^2 f_1 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. (\cos \frac{\pi x}{R} + \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R}) \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} \right. \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{1}{4}\mu^2 f_1 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} (\cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R}) \right.$$

$$\left. - \mu^2 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2)^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 f_1^2 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} + \mu^2 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right]$$

$$= -E\mu^2 (\frac{\pi}{R})^2 \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{8}f_1^2 - (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \right\} \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \frac{1}{4}f_1 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \pi^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} \right.$$

$$\left. + \frac{1}{4}f_1 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) \pi^2 \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} + \left\{ \frac{1}{2}f_1 (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2) + \frac{1}{2}f_1^2 \right\} \cos \frac{\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{\pi y}{R} \right.$$

$$\left. + (\frac{1}{2}f_1 + f_2)^2 \pi^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \cos \frac{2\pi y}{R} + \frac{1}{8}\mu^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_1 = & -E\mu^2 \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left[ \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1^2 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \right) \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 \rho_2 \rho_1^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \right. \\
 & + \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 - \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 \right) \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{(9\mu^2 + 1)^2} \rho_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{3\pi x}{K} \\
 & \left. + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{\mu^2} \rho_1 \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{16} \frac{1}{(\mu^2 + 1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_2 = & E\mu^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \rho_1^2 \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} \right. \\
 & + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{(9\mu^2 + 1)^2} \rho_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \cos \frac{3\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{\mu^2} \rho_1^2 \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{\mu^2} \rho_1^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \\
 & \left. + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{(\mu^2 + 1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_3 = & E\mu^2 \left[ \frac{1}{(9\mu^2 + 1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right) \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \right. \\
 & + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{(9\mu^2 + 1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \cos \frac{2\pi x}{K} \\
 & \left. + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 + \rho_2 \right)^2 \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} \cos \frac{\pi x}{K} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
\phi_1 &= \mu^4 \left[ \frac{1}{12\mu^4} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right)^2 \right) + \frac{1}{512} \dot{\phi}_1^4 + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} \left( \dot{\phi}_1 \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right) - \dot{\phi}_2^2 \right)^2 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{16} \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} \dot{\phi}_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{16} \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} \dot{\phi}_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{16} \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right)^2 \right] \\
&= \frac{\mu^6}{4} \left[ \frac{1}{2\mu^4} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 - \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1 + \dot{\phi}_2 \right)^2 \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 \right) + \frac{1}{128} \dot{\phi}_1^4 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{16(\mu^2+1)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \dot{\phi}_1^2 \dot{\phi}_2 + \left( \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 \right) \right) + \dot{\phi}_1^2 \right] \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \dot{\phi}_1^2 \dot{\phi}_2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \dot{\phi}_1^2 \dot{\phi}_2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} + \dot{\phi}_2^2 \right) \right] \\
&= \frac{\mu^6}{4} \left[ \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 \right) + \frac{1}{16(\mu^2+1)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 + \dot{\phi}_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_1^2 \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{16} \left( \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} + \frac{1}{4(\mu^2+1)} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\mu^2+1} \right) \right]
\end{aligned}$$

$$-n^2 \left\{ j_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{6\mu^2} + \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right) + j_1^2 j_2 \left( \frac{1}{6\mu^2} + \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right) \right\} + \left\{ j_1^2 \left( \frac{1}{6\mu^2} + \frac{1}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right) \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{3\mu^2} j_1 j_2 + \frac{1}{2\mu^2} j_2^2 \right\}$$

$$p_1 = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ n^4 \left[ \left( \frac{(1+\mu^2)}{12} + \frac{17}{64} \frac{\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{16(9\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{16(\mu^2+1)^2} \right) j_1^4 \right. \right. \\ \left. + \left\{ \frac{1}{8} \frac{\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{4(9\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{4(\mu^2+1)^2} \right\} j_1^2 j_2 + \left\{ \frac{1}{8} \frac{\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{4(9\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^6}{4(\mu^2+1)^2} \right\} j_1 j_2^2 \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\mu^6}{2(\mu^2+1)^2} j_1^2 j_2^2 + \frac{\mu^6}{4(\mu^2+1)^2} j_2^4 \right]$$

$$-n^2 \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{16} + \frac{\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right\} j_1^3 + \left\{ \frac{1}{8} + \frac{2\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right\} j_1^2 j_2 \right] + \left[ \left\{ \frac{1}{8} + \frac{\mu^6}{(\mu^2+1)^2} \right\} j_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} j_1 j_2 + \frac{1}{2} j_2^2 \right]$$

$$p_2 = \frac{1}{12(1+\mu^2)} \left( \frac{1}{6} \right)^{1/2} \left\{ \frac{1}{4} (1+\mu^2)^2 j_1^2 + 2\mu^4 \left( \frac{1}{2} j_1 + j_2 \right)^2 + 2 \left( \frac{1}{2} j_1^2 + j_2^2 \right)^{1/2} \right\}$$

$$p_3 = \frac{1}{6^{1/2}(1+\mu^2)} \left( \frac{1}{6} \right)^{1/2} \left\{ \frac{1}{8} (1+\mu^2)^2 + \frac{1}{4} (1+\mu^4) \right\} + \left( \frac{1}{2} j_1^2 j_2 + j_1 j_2^2 + j_1^2 j_2^2 \right)$$

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$$A_3 x^3 + A_2 x^2 + A_1 x + A_0 =$$

$$A_3 = (\beta \xi)^2 \left\{ \frac{3\mu^4}{(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^4}{(4\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\}$$

$$A_2 = (\beta \xi)^2 \left\{ \frac{9\mu^4}{2(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{3\mu^4}{2(4\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{3\mu^4}{2(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\} - (\beta \xi) \left\{ \frac{x}{2} + \frac{2\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\}$$

$$A_1 = (\beta \xi)^2 \left\{ \frac{1+\mu^4}{16} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{\mu^4}{(\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{\mu^4}{(4\mu^2+1)^2} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\} - (\beta \xi) \left\{ \frac{x}{2} + \frac{2\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\} + \left\{ \frac{6\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} - 1 \right\}$$

$$- \frac{9}{3(1+\beta^2)} \beta^2 \left\{ 9(1+\mu^4) - \frac{1}{2}(1+\mu^2)^2 \right\}$$

$$A_0 = (\beta \xi)^2 \left\{ \frac{1+\mu^4}{32} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{\mu^4}{(\mu^2+1)^2} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{\mu^4}{(4\mu^2+1)^2} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} \right\} + \left\{ \frac{2\mu^4}{(\mu^2+9)^2} - \frac{x}{2} \right\}$$

$$- \frac{2}{3(1+\beta^2)} \beta^2 \left\{ (1+\mu^4) - \frac{1}{4}(1+\mu^2)^2 \right\}$$



$$-2\sqrt{E} - 2(l_0 + \frac{1}{4}l_1) + 2\eta^2 \left( \frac{3}{64}l_1^2 + \frac{1}{16}l_1l_2 + \frac{1}{16}l_2^2 \right) = 0$$

$$k' = -4 \left( (1-v) \left( \frac{\pi}{E} \right)^2 + \eta^2 \left( \frac{3}{32} (1-v) l_1^2 + \frac{1}{8} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{8} l_2^2 + \frac{1}{4} \eta^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\pi}{E} \right)^2 \right) \right. \\ \left. - \eta^4 \left( \frac{3}{64} l_1^2 + \frac{1}{16} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{16} l_2^2 + \frac{1}{8} \eta^2 + \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{\pi}{E} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$v = -4 \left( \frac{\pi}{E} + \eta^2 \eta^2 + \frac{1}{8} l_1^2 + \frac{1}{8} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{8} l_2^2 \right)$$

$$\varepsilon = (1-v^2) \frac{\pi}{E} - 4(l_0 + \frac{1}{4}l_1) + \eta^2 (1-v^2) \left( \frac{3}{64} l_1^2 + \frac{1}{16} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{16} l_2^2 \right) \\ - 4^2 \frac{\pi}{E} - 4(l_0 + \frac{1}{4}l_1) + \eta^2 v^2 \left( \frac{3}{64} l_1^2 + \frac{1}{16} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{16} l_2^2 \right) -$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\pi}{E} + \eta^2 \eta^2 \left( \frac{3}{64} l_1^2 + \frac{1}{16} l_1 l_2 + \frac{1}{16} l_2^2 \right)$$

$$\frac{CR}{\varepsilon} = \frac{\sigma_R}{E\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{16} \mu^2 (15) \xi_c \left( \lambda^* + \lambda + 0.7 \right)$$

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$$[M=0.5, \quad \gamma=0.249, \quad \xi=3]$$

$$f^2 = 0.03521, \quad (f_s) = 0.167, \quad (f_s)^2 = 0.251689$$

$$0.0751996228\lambda^3 - 0.56614657\lambda^2 - 1.57447227\lambda - 0.65556180 = 0$$

$$F'(\lambda) = \lambda^3 + 5962887\lambda^2 - 16531697\lambda + 4485405 = 0$$

$$F'(\lambda) = 3\lambda^2 + 11925774\lambda - 16531697$$

$$F(0.331098) = +0.013645 \quad F'(0.33) = 12.273$$

$$0.01098$$

$$F(0.331098) = +0.000007$$

$$\lambda = -0.331099$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial R}{\partial f} &= 0.2190402 + \frac{4}{0.249} \left\{ 0.0313168\lambda^2 - 0.14641820\lambda - 0.0110007 \right\} \\ &= 0.4886323 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial \xi} = \underline{\underline{0.5101}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= 0.4886323^2 + 9 \left[ 0.004698(-\lambda)^4 - 0.007376(-\lambda)^3 + 0.0377713(-\lambda)^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - 0.043976(-\lambda) + 0.0076496 \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$= 0.2642$$

$$\Phi = -0.117151$$

$\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 0$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 15^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 30^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 45^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 60^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 75^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R}$

$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{\pi X}{R}$
0	1.0000	0.9659	0.8660	0.7071	0.50000	0.2588
15°	0.9659	0.9330	0.8365	0.6129	0.4430	0.2500
30°	0.8660	0.8365	0.7500	0.6123	0.4330	0.2241
45°	0.7071	0.6830	0.6123	0.50000	0.3536	0.1830
60°	0.5000	0.4830	0.4330	0.3536	0.2500	0.1294
75°	0.2588	0.2500	0.2241	0.1830	0.1294	0.0670
90°	0	0	0	0	0	0

$$\frac{w}{R} = \left[ c_1 \cdot \frac{\pi(X+Y)}{R} \cdot c_2 \cdot \frac{\pi(X-Y)}{R} \right]$$

$\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 0$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 15^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 30^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 45^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 60^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 75^\circ$     $\frac{\pi Y}{R} = 90^\circ$

$\frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi X}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$	$\frac{w}{R}$
0	1.0000	1.0000	0.9660	0.8704	0.7266	0.5125	0.3962	0.2500
15°	0.9660	0.9827	0.9330	0.8390	0.6998	0.5373	0.3850	0.2333
30°	0.8704	0.9330	0.8390	0.7500	0.6187	0.4615	0.3163	0.1875
45°	0.7266	0.8390	0.6998	0.6117	0.50000	0.3843	0.2333	0.1250
60°	0.5125	0.7500	0.6117	0.4665	0.3663	0.2500	0.1440	0.0625
75°	0.3962	0.6117	0.3450	0.2663	0.2333	0.1440	0.0670	0.0167
90°	0.2500	0.50000	0.2333	0.1875	0.1250	0.0625	0.0167	0
105°	0.1373	0.3706	0.1250	0.0922	0.0503	0.0145	0	0.0167
120°	0.0625	0.2500	0.0543	0.0335	0.0107	0	0.0145	0.0625
135°	0.0145	0.1445	0.0168	0.0063	0	0.0107	0.0303	0.1250
150°	0.0045	0.0670	0.0025	0	0.0063	0.0335	0.0922	0.1875
165°	0.0003	0.0120	0	0.0025	0.0168	0.0543	0.1250	0.2333
180°	0	0	0.0003	0.0045	0.0215	0.0625	0.1373	0.2500

$$\frac{w_2}{R} = \frac{1}{4} \left( a_1 \frac{2\pi x}{R} + a_2 \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right) \quad \text{!! Not Used !!} \quad \underline{\underline{a_2}}$$

$$\frac{\pi x}{R} = 0 \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 15^\circ \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 30^\circ \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 45^\circ \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 60^\circ \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 75^\circ \quad \frac{\pi x}{R} = 90^\circ$$

$\frac{\pi x}{R}$	$\frac{w_1}{R}$	$\frac{w_2}{R}$	$\frac{w_3}{R}$	$\frac{w_4}{R}$	$\frac{w_5}{R}$	$\frac{w_6}{R}$	$\frac{w_7}{R}$
0	0.50000	0.4665	0.37500	0.25000	0.1250	0.0335	0
15°	0.4665	0.4330	0.3415	0.2165	0.0915	0	0.0335
30°	0.3750	0.3415	0.2500	0.1250	0	-0.0915	-0.0335
45°	0.2500	0.2165	0.1250	0	-0.0915	-0.2165	-0.3750
60°	0.1250	0.0915	0	-0.0915	-0.2500	-0.3415	-0.4330
75°	0.0335	0	-0.0915	-0.2165	-0.3415	-0.4330	-0.4665
90°	0	-0.0335	-0.1250	-0.2500	-0.3750	-0.4665	-0.5000
105°	0.0335	0	-0.0915	-0.2165	-0.3415	-0.4330	-0.4665
120°	0.1250	0.0915	0	-0.1250	-0.2500	-0.3415	-0.3750
135°	0.2500	0.2165	0.1250	0	-0.1250	-0.2165	-0.2500
150°	0.3750	0.3415	0.2500	0.1250	0	-0.0915	-0.0335
165°	0.4665	0.4330	0.3415	0.2165	0.0915	0	0.0335
180°	0.5000	0.4665	0.3750	0.2500	0.1250	0.0335	0

$$\frac{w}{R} = \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \left[ a_1 \frac{\pi x}{R} + a_2 \frac{\pi x}{R} + \frac{1}{4} a_3 \frac{2\pi x}{R} + \frac{1}{4} a_4 \frac{2\pi x}{R} \right]$$

$$- \frac{1}{2} a_5 \frac{\pi x}{R} - \frac{1}{2} a_6 \frac{\pi x}{R}$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \left( a_1 + a_2 \right) \cos \frac{(\pi x + \pi x)}{2R} \cos \frac{(\pi x - \pi x)}{2R}$$

$$- \frac{1}{2} a_5 \frac{\pi x}{R} - \frac{1}{2} a_6 \frac{\pi x}{R}$$

Amplitude ratio  $\frac{w_1}{w_2} = \frac{1 + 2j}{-1j} = -\frac{1 + 2j}{j}$

$$w_1 : w_2 = 1 : -9/1 + 2j$$

46

$$\mu = 1000; \quad n = 26, \quad E = 0.5$$

$$p = -0.263215; \quad w_1: w_2 = 1: 0.52198$$

$\frac{w_2}{R}$	$\frac{w_1}{R}$						
	0	15°	30°	45°	60°	75°	90°
0	1.5720	1.5185	1.3677	1.1330	0.8485	0.5442	0.25000
15°	1.5185	1.4667	1.3175	1.0905	0.8136	0.5180	0.2333
30°	1.3667	1.3125	1.1790	0.9589	0.7142	0.4477	0.1875
45°	1.1330	1.0905	0.9689	0.8600	0.5666	0.3300	0.1250
60°	0.8485	0.8136	0.7142	0.5666	0.3930	0.2170	0.0615
75°	0.5442	0.5180	0.4477	0.3380	0.2180	0.1053	0.0167
90°	0.2500	0.2330	0.1875	0.1250	0.0625	0.0167	0
105°	-0.0107	-0.0180	-0.0360	-0.0544	-0.0595	-0.0383	0.0167
120°	-0.2235	-0.2220	-0.2142	-0.1916	-0.1430	-0.0595	0.0625
135°	-0.3829	-0.3757	-0.3427	-0.2860	-0.1916	-0.0544	0.0250
150°	-0.4908	-0.4760	-0.4290	-0.3439	-0.2229	-0.0360	0.1175
165°	-0.5522	-0.5337	-0.4760	-0.3738	-0.2397	-0.0180	0.2333
180°	-0.5720	-0.5522	-0.4908	-0.3849	-0.2235	-0.0107	0.2500

# AERO DIGEST

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New York, N. Y.

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航空 (区)

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CALIFORNIA INST. OF TECH.  
PASADENA, CALIF.

12257

航空力学 (区)  
航空力学 (区) 航空力学 (区)  
航空力学 (区) 航空力学 (区)

## 喷 气 推 进

### 2. 1

#### 有关火箭研究的文献调研和分析计算

作者在1937年春天参加了由他的同学 F. Malina (马林纳) 发起的火箭研究小组。这个小组在1936年最先在校园里后来转移到离学校不远的 San Gabriel 山脚下进行过液体小火箭的发射试验, 几年以后此地成为美国喷气推进国家实验室的所在地。1937年6—9月, 作者做了有关火箭研究的文献资料的调查研究。在他的一份手稿资料袋中, 保存有当年所收集的原始资料以及他所写的调研材料。

原始资料中收集有当年美国的火箭发明家 R. H. Goddard 在1936年发表在《Scientific American》(科学美国人) 杂志上的一篇文章“Liquid-Propellant Rocket Development”, 报导 Goddard 在1930—1935年在新墨西哥州进行的液体火箭飞行试验, 1935年的试验中火箭的飞行高度为7500英尺, 到达了同温层, 该文没有透露有关火箭结构和燃料的技术内容。作者还收集了 W. Ley 在1935年发表在《Aircraft Engineering》(航空工程) 杂志上名为“Rocket Propulsion”(火箭推进) 一文的摘录, 共9页。该文较全面地讨论了结构材料、实验情况、发动机的冷却、燃料的注入、外围设备等方面的内容。

作者所写的调研材料共有114页。其中的一部分是前人工作的文献目录, 分为四个部分, 即: A. 早期文献(12篇, 1827—1931)、B. 近代书籍

(37本, 1913—1933), C. 近代论文(19篇, 1927—1935), 及D. 期刊(4种)。调研材料中的大部分则是作者为加州理工学院的火箭研究小组设计和改进小的液体推进剂试验火箭所做的分析计算, 内容包括燃烧室中的温度、火箭的理想效率、燃烧产物膨胀不足和过度膨胀对火箭效率的影响、燃料喷咀设计、发动机推力的计算等等。

从这份手稿中可以看到, 作者是怎样开始他的火箭研究的。他首先系统地调查、学习和占有前人的经验和知识, 然后把课题分解为几个关键问题, 在做了某些简化假设以后, 利用力学、热力学和化学的基本原理, 估算了一些主要控制参数对燃烧效率和推力等的影响。

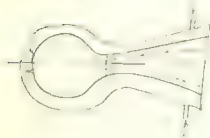
这里我们选印这份手稿中的5页。除了第1页是摘录E. Sänger关于火箭的英国专利说明以外, 其他4页取自作者所做的分析计算方面的调研材料: 第2页是“火箭发动机的理想循环”一节的首页, 第3页是“发动机燃烧室的温度计算”一节的首页, 第4页是“火箭的理想效率的计算”一节的首页, 第5页是“比热为常数的推力公式”一节的首页。



Low Temperature — 5. Large (H. Proprietary) (see p. 1)

R. & Patent of ... (The Engineer) ...

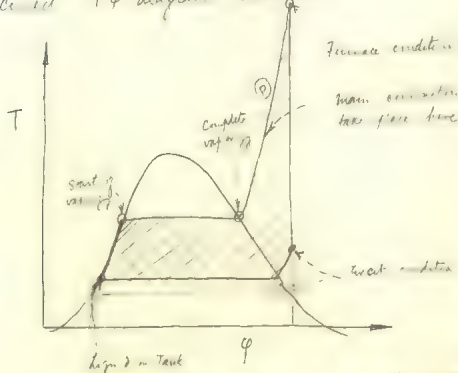
In the specification ... that for a ... of continuous combustion ... have a ... of ... to ... to ... of the exhaust outlet, & that the larger value is preferable. Oxygen should be used to support ... as a ... of high temperatures ... To the combustion chamber ... by ... of ... through which the fuel & ... are passed ... a ... of the ... a ... of the chamber walls.



### Ideal Cycle of Rocket motor

3 B

- (1) When the combustion material is a liquid the cycle is very similar to the cycle of a steam power plant. The liquid is first pumped to the heating unit where it is heated to a vapouring temperature under constant pressure & subsequent vaporizing & superheat occurs constant pressure. Then adiabatic expansion to atmospheric pressure, & then constant pressure cooling to initial liquid state. Therefore the correct  $T\phi$  diagram will be



A correct calculation requires a complete information of thermodynamic characteristics of the combustion material.

Calculation of the Heat Temperature of  
a Rocket Motor

16 (B)

Ref. Evaluation of the Heat Temperature of

Combustion with Gasoline as fuel (1948)

If there is no heat loss, then the heat temperature of the combustion is the same as the heat temperature of the standard fuel.

$$T_{\text{ad}} = T_1$$

Then the heat of combustion at constant pressure is

$$= 2,145,670 + 519.6 (-7.218 + 0.4140 + 0.5196 + 0.1170 + 0.5196)$$

$$= 2,145,670 + 519.6 (-7.218 + 0.623 + 0.0316)$$

$$= 2,145,670 - 519.6 \times 6.763 = 2,145,670 - 3,512$$

$$= 2,142,158 \text{ B.T.U. per mol of } C_8H_{18}$$

Consider the reaction



Heat of  $H_2O$  to  $H_2 + O_2$ , then for  $T_1 = 519.6^\circ F$ , also,

$$H'_{H_2O} = 120,930 + 519.6 (3.245 - 1.95 + 0.5196 + 0.1610 + 0.5196)$$

$$= 120,930 + 519.6 (3.245 - 1.012 + 0.0403)$$

$$= 120,930 + 519.6 \times 2.263 = 120,930 + 1,195$$

$$= 122,125 \text{ B.T.U. per mol}$$

# Calculation of Ideal Rocket Efficiency

39 (1)

Assumptions:

- (1) The oxygen & fuel are injected at 60°F & 1 atm
- (2) The combustion is at constant pressure
- (3) There is no dissociation
- (4) There is no heat loss through the combustion chamber
- (5) There is no loss by friction

 Then the heat content  $\Delta H_c$  of combustion product

$$= \Delta H_{H_2O} + \Delta H_{CO_2} + \Delta H_{H_2}$$

$$= 142,100 + 37,400 + 12.5 \times 3,606 = 2,229,600 \text{ BTU} \quad T_c = 1,450^\circ \text{F}_{ab}$$



(I) Chamber pressure = 3000 #/sq. in.

$\frac{1}{2} \text{ L.}$	$\phi_c$	$\phi_c$	$T_c$	$P_c$	$T_c$	$\frac{T_c - T_0}{T_c}$	$\eta_c$	$C_p$
500	1.098	1.27	4,120	2,025	2,500,000	66.3	68.9	9.00
400	1.022	1.253	4,100	2,150	2,150,000	65.2	67.8	11,840
300	0.958	1.250	4,140	5,200	1,830,000	63.0	65.5	11,660
200	1.288	1.287	4,100	1,441	900,000	59.6	62.0	11,350
100	1.272	1.283	4,100	1,447	500,000	57.1	59.3	11,100
50	1.250	1.282	4,100	1,447	1,026,000	53.4	55.5	10,740

Thrust Equation for Constant Specific Heats

Let  $S$  = sectional area of the throat.

Then the mass flow per unit time

$$= \int \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \frac{p_0}{\left(\frac{p_0}{p}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}} \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}} dA$$

$$= \int \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \frac{p_0}{p_0^{\frac{k-1}{k}}} \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}} dA$$

$$= K_1 \int \frac{p}{(RT_0)^{\frac{k}{k-1}}} dA$$

$$\text{where } K_1 = \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left(\frac{p_0}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p_0}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}} = f_1(k)$$

the exit velocity

$$= \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} (RT_0)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

Therefore the thrust of rocket

$$= \int \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \frac{p_0}{p_0} \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}} dA$$

$$= K_2 p_0 S \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

$$\text{where } K_2 = \left(\frac{\gamma k}{k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left(\frac{p_0}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \left\{1 - \left(\frac{p_0}{p_0}\right)^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\right\}^{\frac{1}{k}} = f_2(k)$$

$$\frac{p}{p_0} = \left(\frac{2}{k+1}\right)^{\frac{k}{k-1}}$$

## 2.2

### Flight Analysis of a Sounding Rocket with Special Reference to Propulsion by Successive Impulses

#### 以逐次脉冲推进的探空火箭的飞行分析

这是作者发表于1939年的“Flight Analysis of a Sounding Rocket with Special Reference to Propulsion by Successive Impulses”（以逐次脉冲推进的探空火箭的飞行分析）一文的打字文稿的前两页。这一工作是作者博士论文的一部分。

1936年作者进入美国加州理工学院，追随力学大师 Theodore von Kármán（冯·卡门）学习应用力学。次年，作者参加了学院中由年轻研究生 F. J. Malina（马林纳）、A. M. O. Smith（史密斯）等爱好火箭技术而自发形成的研究小组。这个小组的工作特点是实验和理论分析并重，他们自己动手制造模型火箭，进行发射试验；同时对出现的问题和解决方案进行理论分析。作者在这个小组里主要担当理论家的任务。

当时火箭的技术水平是不高的，因此开始设定的目标是研制探空火箭。L. Damblanc（1935）根据静态燃烧试验所做的估计，火箭可达到的高度是10 000英尺，还不能满足探空火箭的需要。这就促使作者做进一步的分析，探讨采用什么样的发动机和燃烧方案可以使火箭经济而高效地达到更高的高度。

作者在这篇文章中探讨和论证了逐次推进的方案，即采用以硝化棉类的固体火药作为推进剂，进行多次快速燃烧排气而获得脉冲式推力的方案，可以到达离地面100 000英尺的高度，而在这样的高度上就能够进行大气层的结构以及地球大气层以外的物理现象的观测和研究。

## PART IV

### FLIGHT ANALYSIS OF A SOUNDING ROCKET WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PROPULSION BY SUCCESSIVE IMPULSES

By

Hsue-Shen Tsien and Frank J. Malina  
California Institute of Technology

#### SUMMARY

In Part I of this paper an exact solution of the problem of determining the height reached by a body in vertical flight in vacuum propelled by successive impulses is presented. On the basis of this analysis it is concluded that a rocket propelled by successive impulses - the impulses being obtained, for example, from rapidly burning powder - has useful possibilities and further research is justified. In Part II the effect of the variation of the acceleration of gravity with height above sea level on the flight performance of a sounding rocket is analyzed. In Part III the fundamental performance parameters for flight of a sounding rocket in air are discussed. Finally, in Part IV the theory of the preceding sections is applied to a specific case of a sounding rocket propelled by successive impulses.

#### INTRODUCTION

In 1919 R. H. Goddard <sup>(1)</sup> published the historically important paper which suggested the use of nitro-cellulose powder as a propellant for raising a sounding rocket to altitudes beyond the range of sounding balloons. To determine the feasibility of this propellant, a series of experiments had been carried out

and it was found that a thermal efficiency of 50% could be expected if the powder was exploded in a properly designed chamber and the resulting gases were allowed to escape at high velocity through an expanding nozzle. In 1931 R. Tilling used a mixture of potassium chlorate and naphthalene as propellant and actually reached an altitude of 6,600 feet. More recently, L. Damblanc<sup>2, 3, 4</sup> made static tests with a slow burning black powder and from these estimated that a height of 10,000 feet could be reached using a two-step arrangement. The ~~present~~ results so far reported offer an incentive to further analysis.

The effect of decreasing gravitational acceleration on the maximum height reached by a rocket has been considered by A. Bartoel<sup>5</sup>. However, he assumes that the rocket itself has a constant acceleration during powered flight. L. Breguet and P. Devillers<sup>6, 4</sup> also considered the effect of the variation of  $g$ . To simplify the analysis, they assumed that the acceleration of the rocket was equal to a constant multiple of  $g$ . Since the sounding rocket for practical reasons will be propelled by a nearly constant thrust or a uniform rate of successive impulses, in Part II the authors have studied the problem anew according to this mode of propulsion.

When the sounding rocket is ascending through the air the maximum height reached is less than that reached for flight in vacuo. Recently, studies have been made of the problem by W. Ley and H. Schaefer<sup>7, 5</sup>, and by P.J. Malina and A.W.S. Smith<sup>8, 6</sup>. On the basis of the latter study a group of new performance parameters have been isolated from the general performance equation, and these are discussed in Part I.



## 2.3

### Rockets and Other Thermal Jets Using Nuclear Energy

#### 采用核能的火箭和其他热射流

这是作者发表于1949年的“Rockets and Other Thermal Jets Using Nuclear Energy”（采用核能的火箭和其他热射流）一文的部分手稿，共有6页，即标题为“Nuclear Energy Rocket”的原始手稿的前4页和后2页。

促成第二次世界大战结束的原子弹的使用，激发起人们对于把原子能用于其他工程领域的极大兴趣。作者敏感地意识到，原子能可能用于飞行器的动力装置，因为它能适应超声速飞行所要求的降低燃料重量和增加有效负载这两个主要指标。

作者在战后不久，即1946年，在《Journal of Aeronautical Sciences》（航空学报）上发表了“Atomic Energy”（原子能）一文，介绍了用原子能作为飞行器动力这一新的研究领域所需要的基础知识。同时，在《Nuclear Science and Engineering》（核科学和核工程）一书的第二卷中写了题为“Rockets and Other Thermal Jets Using Nuclear Energy”（用核能的火箭和其它热射流）一章，这里发表的就是作者写作这一章的部分手稿。文中讨论了采用核动力的火箭及其他喷气推进装置中出现的几个基本问题，如：相对论效应、优化设计等；接着，作者对核动力火箭的性能和重量做了估算，并就减小临界尺寸的可能性与采用多孔材料作为堆体的优点等问题提出了建议。现在看来，作者的上述观点确实抓住了核航天技术的一些关键。

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

1

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{20^2 + 15^2 + 900}{8} = 112.5$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{112.5}{\sqrt{2}} = 79.37$$

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(2)

1. 计算...

2. 计算...

$$= \frac{0.001003 \times 10^{-3} + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3}}{0.001003 \times 10^{-3} + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} + C = -\frac{1}{1.05(1-\beta)} + C = -\frac{N(23P)}{1.05(1-\beta) + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} N(23P)}$$

$$= \frac{1.05(1-\beta) \times 11}{30 \times 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} (473 + 9.02R) + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.05(1-\beta) R}$$

3. 计算...

4. 计算...

$$\frac{(1-\beta) \times 11 [0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 9.02 + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.05(1-\beta)]}{0.001003 \times 10^{-3} (473 + 9.02R) + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.05(1-\beta) R}$$

$$= \frac{11(1-\beta) [0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 9.02 + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.05(1-\beta)]}{0.001003 \times 10^{-3} (473 + 9.02R) + 0.001003 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.05(1-\beta) R}$$



... to end of a radius of 11-735, 11-730 and C.

diameter of tube =  $\frac{1}{8}$ "

... to end of a radius of 11-735, 11-730 and C.

Tube to be uniformly tapered; average dimension as follows.

Approximately drill size

Temperature difference of porous material and the gas = 17°F,

... of ... tubes of 0.00759" diameter

Pressure drop across the porous material = 1 psi

	Example I	Example II
	$N(432) \cdot N(1210) = \frac{1}{10}$	$N(1222) \cdot N(1211) = 1$
1. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
2. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
3. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
4. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
5. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
6. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
7. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
8. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
9. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
10. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
11. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
12. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
13. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
14. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
15. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
16. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
17. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
18. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
19. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
20. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
21. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
22. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
23. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
24. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
25. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
26. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
27. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
28. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
29. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
30. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
31. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
32. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
33. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
34. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
35. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
36. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
37. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
38. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
39. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
40. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
41. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
42. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
43. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
44. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
45. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
46. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
47. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
48. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
49. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
50. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
51. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
52. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
53. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
54. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
55. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
56. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
57. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
58. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
59. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
60. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
61. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
62. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
63. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
64. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
65. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
66. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
67. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
68. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
69. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
70. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
71. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
72. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
73. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
74. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
75. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
76. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
77. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
78. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
79. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
80. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
81. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
82. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
83. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
84. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
85. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
86. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
87. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
88. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
89. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
90. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
91. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
92. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
93. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
94. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
95. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
96. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
97. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
98. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
99. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$
100. $\frac{1}{10}$	$1.27$	$1.27$

Weight of fuel 40% burnt, loss

Duration of burn 3 sec

Total amount of fuel used, 6.4 u.

$3 \times 10^{10}$  fission per second  $\approx 1$  watt.

$3 \times 10^{10} \times 100 \times 3600 = 10^{14}$  fission = 3.6 u

$10^{14} \times 100 \times 3600 = 3.6 \times 10^{14}$  fission

1 lb of U-235 = 453 gram = 1.93 gr. = 1.93  $\times 10^{-3}$  kg = 1.93  $\times 10^{-3}$  atoms

## 2.4

### Stabilizing by Dynamic Mounting of Booster

#### 火箭助推器动态支撑的稳定作用

这是作者未曾发表的一份手稿中的一部分。在这份手稿中,作者设想利用助推器的动态支撑而实现火箭的稳定飞行,并且进行了分析。写作时间不详。F. Marble (弗朗克·马勃) 认为,这个问题是作者建议加州理工学院的研究生进行研究的课题。

当助推器的推力偏离火箭飞行的方向时,可能导致两种不同的后果。一种是飞行器更加偏离原轨道,这时系统是不稳定的;另一种则是回到原定方向上来,这时系统是稳定的。稳定与否取决于助推器与飞行器间支撑的动力学参数,参数选择适当就可以得到稳定的系统,实现稳定的飞行。

这里选印作者第一份底稿,共10页。前8页是推导由火箭及其助推器构成的系统的运动方程组,以及与之相应的反映系统稳定性的特征方程,后2页是数值算例。





$$F(\theta + \phi) + \frac{F}{C} [d(\theta + \phi) + l\dot{\phi}] = M\ddot{x} \quad (2)$$

For angular acceleration, we shall use a system having the same value of  $\mu$  as in (1).

$$F(\theta + \phi) + \frac{F}{C} [d(\theta + \phi) + l\dot{\phi}] = M\ddot{x}$$

$$\boxed{F(\theta + \phi) + \frac{F}{C} [d(\theta + \phi) + l\dot{\phi}] = M\ddot{x}}$$

$$F + R_y - m_y = m_y \ddot{y} \quad (4)$$

$$(1) \dots (1+d)(\dot{\theta}+\dot{\phi}) - \left(\frac{L}{m}\right)(\dot{\phi}+\dot{\theta}) + R_2 L - R_2 L(\theta+\phi) + (z+h)\theta =$$

from (1) and (4)

$$R_2 = m\ddot{\theta} + m\ddot{\phi} - F = m(\ddot{\theta} + \ddot{\phi}) - F$$

$$\therefore \frac{R_2}{L} = F\left(\frac{m}{H} - 1\right) \quad (7)$$

From (2) and (5)

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{F(\theta+\phi) + \frac{E}{c}(L(\dot{\theta}+\dot{\phi}) + L\dot{\phi})}{\dots}$$

$$= \frac{E}{c}(L+d)(\dot{\theta}+\dot{\phi}) - F(\theta+\phi) + (z+h)\theta =$$

Substituting (2) and (6) into (4),

$$\ddot{\theta} + \ddot{\phi} = \frac{E}{c}(L+d)(\dot{\theta}+\dot{\phi}) - \frac{E}{c}\left(\frac{L}{m}\right)(\dot{\phi}+\dot{\theta}) +$$

$$\dots (x-h)\theta =$$

$$= \frac{E}{c}(L+d)(\dot{\theta}+\dot{\phi}) - \frac{E}{c}\left(\frac{L}{m}\right)(\dot{\phi}+\dot{\theta}) +$$

$$(x-h)\theta =$$



$\beta_r$

5

$$\left\{1 - \left(\frac{m}{H}\right) \left(\frac{z}{i}\right) k^* / (L - k^*)\right\} \ddot{\phi} + \left(\frac{F}{cH} \frac{z}{i}\right) \left[ d^* (d^* + k^*) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{M}{m}\right) + \frac{m}{H} k^* / (d^* + L^*) \right] \dot{\phi} \\ + \left\{1 + \frac{m}{H} \frac{z}{i} k^*\right\} \ddot{\theta} + \frac{F}{cH} \frac{z}{i} \left[ d^* / (d^* + k^*) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{M}{m}\right) + \frac{m}{H} k^* d^* \ddot{\theta} - \ddot{\phi} \right] \\ = \frac{F\delta}{i}$$

Let

$$t = t^* \sqrt{\frac{2}{Fk}}$$

$$t^* = t \sqrt{\frac{Fk}{2}}$$

$$\phi' = \frac{d\phi}{dt^*}$$

$$L = L^* + d^*$$

$$D = k^* + d^*$$

(11)

$$\phi'' + \frac{F}{cH} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{Fk} (L^2 - 1) \phi' + \left(\frac{F}{cH} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{Fk}\right) L(L - L^*) \theta' + L^* \theta = \frac{\gamma}{Fk} + \frac{\delta}{k}$$

$$\left\{1 - \left(\frac{m}{H}\right) \left(\frac{z}{i}\right) / (L - D) [L^* - (L - D)]\right\} \phi'' + \frac{F}{cH} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{Fk} \frac{z}{i} \left[ D / (L - L^*) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{M}{m}\right) + \frac{m}{H} L / (L^* - (L - D)) \right] \phi'$$

$$+ \left\{1 + \frac{m}{H} \frac{z}{i} [L^* - (L - D)]\right\} \theta'' + \frac{F}{cH} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{Fk} \frac{z}{i} \left[ D / (L - L^*) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{M}{m}\right) + \frac{\gamma}{H} (L^* - L^2 - L - D) \right] \theta'$$

$$+ \left(\frac{\beta}{i} \frac{2}{Fk}\right) \theta = \frac{F\delta}{i} \frac{2}{Fk}$$

Let

$$\frac{F}{cM\lambda} \sqrt{\frac{z}{Fk}} = z, \quad \frac{\beta}{Fk} = n^2$$

$$\phi'' + z(L^2 - 1)\phi' + zL(L - l^2)\phi + l^4\phi = \frac{\tau}{Fk} + \frac{\delta}{k} \quad (12)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ \left( \frac{l^2}{2} - \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) (L - D) \right) (l^2 - (L - D)) \right] \phi'' + z \left[ D(L - l^2) - \left( \frac{l^2}{2} \right) \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) + \frac{\tau}{H} L (l^2 - (L - D)) \right] \phi' \\ & + \left[ \left( \frac{l^2}{2} + \frac{\tau}{H} \right) (l^2 - (L - D)) \right] \phi'' + z \left[ D(L - l^2) - \left( \frac{l^2}{2} \right) \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) + \frac{\tau}{H} L (l^2 - (L - D)) \right] \phi' \quad (13) \\ & + n^2 \phi = \frac{\delta}{k} \end{aligned}$$

For a given design,  $L, D, z, \left( \frac{l^2}{2} \right), \left( \frac{M}{H} \right)$  fixed;

$l^2, n^2$  can be varied.

$l_1 = L - D$  = distance between C.G. of mirror to C.G. of  
booster in units of  $k$ .

$$\left[ (l^0)_{+2} (l^0)_{-1} \right] \phi + \left[ 2L(l_1, l^0)(l^0)' + l^4 \right] \phi = \frac{2}{Fk} + \frac{6}{k}$$

$$\left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)_{-1} - \frac{2}{H} (l_1, l^0)_{-1} (l^0)' + 2 \left( l_1 (l^0)' + \frac{11}{H} \right) + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' \right] \phi$$

$$+ \left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)_{-1} + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' \right] \phi + 2 \left( l_1 (l^0)' - l^4 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{11}{H} \right) + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' + m^2 \int \phi = \frac{6}{k}$$

The characteristic eqn. is

$$a\lambda^4 + b\lambda^3 + c\lambda^2 + d\lambda = 0$$

$$a = \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{m}{H} \right) (l^4 - l_1)^2$$

$$b = 2 \left[ \left( l_1 (l^0)' - l^4 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{11}{H} \right) (l_1, l^0)' + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' \right] + 2 \left( l_1 (l^0)' + \frac{2}{H} \right) (l^0 l_1)'$$

$$c = 2 \left[ \left( l_1 (l^0)' - l^4 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{11}{H} \right) + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' \right] + \frac{2}{H} (l^0 l_1)' - 2 \left( l_1 (l^0)' + \frac{2}{H} \right) (l^0 l_1)'$$

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$$C = n^2 + x^2(1, 0) \left( \frac{1}{2} (1 - \rho^2) + \frac{1}{2} (\rho^2) + \frac{1}{2} (1 - \rho^2) + \frac{1}{2} (\rho^2) \right)$$

$$= 1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \rho^2 (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$= 1^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \rho^2 (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ (1 - \rho^2) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) + \rho^2 (1 - \rho^2) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) + \left( \frac{2}{11} \right) (1 - \rho^2) \right]$$



$$1.0 = l_1$$

$$l_1 = 1$$

$$l_1 = 1.7$$

$$l_1 = 0.7$$

$$a = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} l_1^2 = 0$$

$$b = 0.01 \times \frac{1}{2} l_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} l_1^2 = \frac{1}{4} l_1^2 = 0.01 \times \frac{1}{4} l_1^2$$

$$= 0.01 \times \left[ \frac{1.19}{2} - \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 - \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 \right]$$

$$b = 0.01 \times \left[ \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 - (0.7 - \frac{1.19}{2} - 0.17) l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

$$b = 0.01 \times \left[ \frac{1.19}{2} l_1^2 - (0.7 - \frac{1.19}{2} - 0.17) l_1^2 + \frac{1.19}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) (11^2 - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{7} + 0.02 \left[ 11.3 l^2 (11 - \frac{1}{2}) - 0.4 l^2 - 2 \cdot 1.17 l^2 \right] \\ = 0.63 l^2 (11^2 - 1)$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) (11^2 - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{7} + 0.02 \left[ 11.3 l^2 (11 - \frac{1}{2}) - 0.4 l^2 - \frac{4.31}{7} \right] - 0.63 l^2 (11^2 - 1) \\ = n^2 + \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) (11^2 - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{7} + 0.02 \left[ -\frac{6.8}{2} l^2 + \frac{4.31 \cdot 11.3}{7} l^2 + \frac{0.4}{3} l^2 - \frac{4.31}{7} \right] \\ = 0.63 l^2 + 0.63 l^2$$

$$c = n^2 + \left( \frac{1}{3} \right) (11^2 - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{7} + 0.02 \left[ + \frac{6.8}{3} l^2 - \frac{14.19}{7} l^2 + \frac{4.31}{7} \right]$$

$$d = \dots$$

$$bc > ad$$

$$\sim l^2 \quad l^2 = 1.3$$

$$d = 0.02 \left[ 1.17 n^2 - 1.3 \left( \frac{0.2}{3} l^2 + \frac{1.31}{7} \right) \right] - 0.02 \left[ 11.3 n^2 - \frac{1.3 \cdot 11.3}{7} \right]$$

$$n^2 > \frac{1.3 + 2.33}{7 \cdot 1.17} = \frac{1.66}{7} = 0.1181$$

## 2.5

### Long Range Commercial Rocket

#### 远程商用火箭

作者曾在美国 AIAA 年会上做过题为 “Long Range Commercial Rocket” (远程商用火箭) 的报告, 在社会上引起很大的反响 (见当时的美国的《时代杂志》)。

1944 年, 作者参加了加州理工学院喷气推进实验室所接受的研制远程火箭的一个大型研究项目的工作。为了制订远程火箭的研究路线和方案, 作者对当时各种类型的火箭发动机的优缺点作了比较性分析, 因此熟悉了发动机的性能。与此同时, 作者对于将火箭喷气推进技术推广到商业应用的可能性发生了兴趣。

作者注意了解当时有关这一问题的学术动态, 学者们对喷气运输机的经济性已经做过仔细的研讨, 认为: 无论是亚声速或超声速的喷气运输机, 高速飞行所需的成本太高。作者仔细地分析了上述结论的依据, 发现前人的结论基于传统的飞行路线, 即在一定的高度上做等速飞行。如果改用另一种飞行路线和方式, 有可能解决经济性的问题。

作者的新方案的要点是: 采用高推力的火箭发动机, 在相对短的时间内产生足够的动能, 使飞机垂直向上起飞冲出大气层; 然后在熄火无动力的状态下, 飞机在无空气阻力的高真空中沿椭圆形轨道飞行; 当其重新进入大气层后, 再利用机翼所接受的空气动力的作用, 使飞机在相当长的一段距离内做小角度的俯冲滑行而直达目的地。这一方案可以显著减少燃料消耗而增大航程。

1948 年, 作者以 Aerojet Engineering Corporation 公司顾问的身份, 将一份题为 “MEMORANDUM on: Optimum Trajectory for Long Range Rocket Missiles” (关于远程火箭导弹的优化轨道的备忘录) 的研究报告送交该公司的副总裁 D. A. Kimball。作者对方案中多种可能选择的滑行轨道作了估

算，为探求达到最大航程的优化轨道，做了一个全局性的论证。该报告的手稿共 25 页，这里选印手稿的前 10 页以及一页有关滑行轨道分析的内容目录。而在前 10 页中，最前面的 3 页写出了作者分析这一问题的总思路，包括基本假设、分析方法和主要结果。后面 7 页讨论的是下面这样一个无升力的滑行轨道的优化问题：当最初的依靠火箭动力的加速阶段结束以后，飞机冲出了大气层，在大气层外开始做无升力的滑行。如果滑行的初速为  $V_0$ ，航向与地面的夹角为  $\psi$ ，那么要问：对于一个给定的初速  $V_0$ ，采取什么样的方向角  $\psi$  可以达到最大的航程？作者给出了这一优化问题的解答。

过了几年，作者又指导他的研究生 D. D. Beyer 在上述方案分析的基础上，就方案的经济性进行了论证，在 1953 年写出了题为“Economic Possibilities of Long Range Commercial Rocket Transports”（远程商用火箭运输的经济上的可能性）的学位论文。

1. Definition of the term "mathematical model"  
 A mathematical model is a representation of a physical system or process in terms of mathematical concepts and relationships. It is used to analyze the behavior of the system and to predict its response to various inputs.

2. Classification of mathematical models  
 Mathematical models can be classified into several categories based on their characteristics and the methods used to solve them. The main categories are:

- 1) Analytical models: These are models that can be solved exactly using mathematical techniques. They are often used for simple systems or as a basis for more complex models.
- 2) Numerical models: These are models that are solved using numerical methods, such as finite difference or finite element methods. They are used for systems that are too complex to solve analytically.
- 3) Stochastic models: These are models that incorporate randomness or uncertainty in the system. They are used to study the behavior of systems that are subject to random fluctuations.
- 4) Hybrid models: These are models that combine elements of different types of models, such as analytical and numerical models.

The first of these is the velocity of the gas as it leaves the nozzle. This is the most important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The velocity of the gas is determined by the temperature of the gas and the area of the nozzle. The temperature of the gas is determined by the amount of fuel and the amount of oxygen that is mixed with it. The area of the nozzle is determined by the design of the engine.

The second of these is the mass of the gas that is expelled. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The mass of the gas is determined by the density of the gas and the volume of the gas that is expelled. The density of the gas is determined by the temperature and the pressure of the gas. The volume of the gas is determined by the area of the nozzle and the velocity of the gas.

The third of these is the angle of the nozzle. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The angle of the nozzle is determined by the design of the engine. The angle of the nozzle affects the direction of the thrust and the efficiency of the engine.

The fourth of these is the velocity of the gas as it enters the nozzle. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The velocity of the gas as it enters the nozzle is determined by the pressure of the gas and the area of the inlet. The pressure of the gas is determined by the temperature and the density of the gas. The area of the inlet is determined by the design of the engine.

The fifth of these is the angle of the inlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The angle of the inlet affects the direction of the thrust and the efficiency of the engine.

The sixth of these is the velocity of the gas as it leaves the inlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The velocity of the gas as it leaves the inlet is determined by the pressure of the gas and the area of the inlet. The pressure of the gas is determined by the temperature and the density of the gas. The area of the inlet is determined by the design of the engine.

The seventh of these is the angle of the outlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The angle of the outlet affects the direction of the thrust and the efficiency of the engine.

The eighth of these is the velocity of the gas as it enters the outlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The velocity of the gas as it enters the outlet is determined by the pressure of the gas and the area of the outlet. The pressure of the gas is determined by the temperature and the density of the gas. The area of the outlet is determined by the design of the engine.

The ninth of these is the angle of the inlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The angle of the inlet affects the direction of the thrust and the efficiency of the engine.

The tenth of these is the velocity of the gas as it leaves the inlet. This is also an important factor in determining the thrust of the engine. The velocity of the gas as it leaves the inlet is determined by the pressure of the gas and the area of the inlet. The pressure of the gas is determined by the temperature and the density of the gas. The area of the inlet is determined by the design of the engine.



4

Since the air drag is assumed to be zero, the mechanical energy and the kinetic energy must be a constant equal to the value at the starting point. Hence

$$\frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 + \left( r \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 \right] - \frac{k}{r} = \frac{1}{2} v_0^2 - \frac{k}{R} \quad (15)$$

The linear momentum in the circumferential direction is  $mr \frac{d\theta}{dt}$ . Therefore the moment of momentum is  $mr^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt}$ . Now since the central attractive force will not act on the quantity, the moment of momentum will be constant and equal to the value at the starting point. Hence

$$r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = R v_0 \cos \psi \quad (16)$$

Now

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{dr}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

By (16), then

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{dr}{d\theta} \left[ \frac{R v_0 \cos \psi}{r^2} \right] \quad (17)$$

By substituting (17) into (15),

$$\left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 \frac{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}{r^4} + \frac{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}{r^2} - \frac{2k}{r} = v_0^2 - \frac{2k}{R} \quad (18)$$

Therefore

$$\left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right) \frac{R v_0 \cos \psi}{r^2} = \sqrt{v_0^2 - \frac{2k}{R} - \frac{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}{r^2} + \frac{2k}{r}} \quad (19)$$



Let  $\psi = \theta - \phi$

$$d\theta = \frac{d\left(\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r}\right)}{\sqrt{v_0^2 - \frac{2b}{R} - \frac{R^2 v_0^2 \sin^2 \psi}{r^2} + \frac{2b}{r}}}$$

$$= \frac{-d\left(\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r}\right) - \frac{b}{r^2} d\psi}{\sqrt{\left(v_0^2 - \frac{2b}{R} + \frac{b^2}{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}\right) \left(\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r} - \frac{b}{r^2} \cos \psi\right)^2}}$$

This equation can be integrated as

$$\theta + \pi = \cos^{-1} \left[ \frac{\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r} - \frac{b}{r^2} \cos \psi}{\sqrt{\left(v_0^2 - \frac{2b}{R} + \frac{b^2}{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}\right) \left(\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r} - \frac{b}{r^2} \cos \psi\right)^2}} \right]$$

Let  $\psi = \theta - \phi$ , then  $\theta = \phi + \psi$ , and the equation can be written as

$$\phi + \psi = \cos^{-1} \left[ \frac{\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r} - \frac{b}{r^2} \cos \psi}{\sqrt{\left(v_0^2 - \frac{2b}{R} + \frac{b^2}{R^2 v_0^2 \cos^2 \psi}\right) \left(\frac{Rv_0 \cos \psi}{r} - \frac{b}{r^2} \cos \psi\right)^2}} \right]$$

Let  $\psi = \theta - \phi$ , then  $\theta = \phi + \psi$ , and the equation can be written as  $\phi$ , then

$$\phi = R = 322 \text{ ft-msec}$$

(27)

由 (1) 及 (2) 得

$$-\frac{1}{r} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2A}{r^3} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2}}$$

或

$$r = \frac{2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2A}{r^3} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2}} \quad (13)$$

由 (13) 式可得  $r$  与  $t$  的关系，即  $r = r(t)$ ，此即  $r$  对  $t$  的函数。  
 由 (13) 式可得  $r$  与  $t$  的关系，即  $r = r(t)$ ，此即  $r$  对  $t$  的函数。  
 由 (13) 式可得  $r$  与  $t$  的关系，即  $r = r(t)$ ，此即  $r$  对  $t$  的函数。

$$r' = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3} \quad (14)$$

由 (14) 式

$$r = \frac{2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2A}{r^3} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2}} \quad (15)$$

由 (15) 式可得  $r$  与  $t$  的关系，即  $r = r(t)$ ，此即  $r$  对  $t$  的函数。

$$r = \frac{2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{2A}{r^3} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2}} \quad (16)$$

由 (16) 式可得  $r$  与  $t$  的关系，即  $r = r(t)$ ，此即  $r$  对  $t$  的函数。

$$r = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - \frac{2A}{r^3} \quad (17)$$

(13), (15) and (17) show that the constant direction is a plane if  $2 < 1$ .  
 This is the locus, for angles that will return to  $\theta_0$ , and  
 the trajectory which is considered here (17) is stratified  
 for the group of trajectories all having the same source determined  
 by  $\theta_0$ . The parameter is  $\varepsilon$ , the eccentricity. We want to calculate  
~~the trajectory corresponding to the minimum energy or minimum  $V_0$ .~~  
 This will be done presently:

Eliminating  $\cos^2 \phi$  from (14) and (16),

$$1 - \varepsilon^2 = \left(\frac{V_0}{g}\right)^2 \cos^2 \phi = \frac{g^2 R - V_0^2}{R^2}$$

$$= (1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_0) \left(2 - \frac{V_0^2}{g^2 R}\right)$$

Solving for  $V_0^2$ , we have

$$V_0^2 = g^2 R \left\{ 2 - \frac{1 - \varepsilon^2}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_0} \right\} \quad (18)$$

Given such value of  $\theta_0$ , we have to determine the value of  $\varepsilon$   
 corresponding to the minimum of  $V_0$ . Thus the minimum value  
 of  $\varepsilon$  must satisfy the following equation:

$$\left(\frac{\partial V_0^2}{\partial \varepsilon}\right)_{\varepsilon=\varepsilon^*} = 0.$$

$$0 = -2\varepsilon^* (1 - \varepsilon^* \cos \theta_0) + (1 - \varepsilon^{*2}) \cos \theta_0 = 0$$

由式 (11) 可得

$$1 - \varepsilon^2 = \varepsilon^2 + \varepsilon \cos \theta_1 = 1 \quad (11)$$

由式 (12) 可得

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{\varepsilon^2} \quad (12)$$

由式 (12) 可得

$$\varepsilon^2 = 1 - \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{\varepsilon^2} \quad (13)$$

由式 (13) 可得

$$\varepsilon^2 = \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{\varepsilon^2} \quad (14)$$

由

$$\varepsilon^2 = \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{\varepsilon^2} \quad (15)$$

由式 (15) 可得

$$H = \varepsilon \cos \theta_1 = R \left[ \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{1 - \varepsilon} - 1 \right]$$

由

$$H = R \varepsilon \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{1 - \varepsilon} \quad (16)$$

由式 (16) 可得

$$H^2 = R^2 \frac{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_1}{(1 - \varepsilon)^2} \quad (17)$$

(1), (11), (22), <sup>and</sup> (24) are the equations to determine  $v_0$  and  $S_0$ , trajectory without lift.

The following table is the result of computation. The relation between  $v_0$  and  $S_0$  is plotted in fig. 5, curve a.

Table I

Coasting flight without lift			
Range, $S_0$ miles	Initial velocity, $v_0$ ft./sec.	Incidence $\psi$ °	Altitude of burst miles
100	4,099	44.64	24.85
300	7,012	43.91	73.56
500	8,942	43.19	121.20
1000	12,176	41.38	233.69
2000	16,411	37.76	431.84
3000	19,071	34.14	591.4
4000	20,959	30.52	710.4
5000	22,360	26.90	786.5
6000	23,422	23.28	818.4

b) Coasting flight around the earth with lift

The flight is considered to be carried out at a constant radius  $R_0$ . <sup>(12,23)</sup> If  $g$  is the gravitational constant and the velocity of flight, the lift produced by the wing is constant. <sup>(12,23)</sup> The resultant of the gravitational attraction and the centrifugal force

$\lambda_{\text{真}}/\mu\text{m}$	$\theta_1$	$\theta_2$	$\sin \theta_2$	$\cos \theta_2$	$\frac{1}{\sin \theta_2}$	$\frac{1 - \sin \theta_2}{1 + \sin \theta_2}$	$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{n_1}{n_2} + \frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)$	$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{n_1}{n_2} - \frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)$
500	3.12	3°37'	0.0605	0.9980	0.001	0.999	0.0000	0.0000
1000	7.25	7°15'	0.1250	0.9920	0.005	0.995	0.0000	0.0000
2000	14.49	14°37'	0.2510	0.9675	0.010	0.990	0.0000	0.0000
3000	21.72	21°43'	0.3702	0.9282	0.015	0.985	0.0000	0.0000
4000	28.98	28°59'	0.4861	0.8746	0.016	0.984	0.0000	0.0000
5000	36.22	36°13'	0.5968	0.8037	0.015	0.985	0.0000	0.0000
6000	43.50	43°30'	0.6835	0.7287	0.014	0.986	0.0000	0.0000

$\lambda_{\text{真}}/\mu\text{m}$	$\frac{\cos \theta_2}{\sin \theta_1}$	[ ]	$\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{n_1}{n_2} + \frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)$
500	1.031	0.9922	0.1168
1000	1.061	0.6122	0.1715
2000	1.119	0.709	0.159
3000	1.171	1.098	0.136
4000	1.210	1.223	0.097
5000	1.262	1.318	0.069
6000	1.299	1.270	0.123

- a) Coasting flight without lift
  - b) Coasting flight around the earth with lift
  - c) Coasting flight in an upward circular orbit with lift
  - d) Powered flight around the earth at constant velocity with lift
  - e) Suborbital powered flight to attain required velocity
3. Trajectories utilizing kinetic energy only
    - a) Single Loop Trajectory
    - b) Steady Glide
    - c) Double Loop Trajectory
    - d) Single Loop and Glide Trajectory
  4. Comparison of Trajectories Utilizing kinetic energy
  5. Trajectories with horizontal acceleration of flight
  6. Trajectories with lateral rocket thrust

## 2.6

### Performance of Rocket Projectile

#### 远程火箭的飞行特性

这是作者在 20 世纪 40 年代中后期分析长程火箭的飞行特性的一份资料的部分手稿。

1944 年,加州理工学院 ( Caltech ) 受美国陆军军械部 ( Army Ordnance ) 的委托,研究远程火箭。为此,加州理工学院喷气推进实验室 ( JPL ) 重新组织了力量,分成弹道、材料、推进和结构等四个部分,由作者负责推进方面的工作。作者在那一段时期,为远程火箭进行了多方面的分析,从发动机、火箭整体结构直到飞行轨道等,设想了各种方案,并且进行了优化分析。

在这份资料中作者对远程火箭的飞行特性,包括射程、动力飞行阶段、自由飞行阶段以及有翼滑翔阶段等进行了分析计算,并且提供了 LRRP - I 和 LRRP - II 两个实际算例。这里选印了手稿中的 11 页,其中 9 页是关于轨道、升力系数  $C_L$  和阻力系数  $C_D$  的推导和计算,2 页是实例的计算。

这是按合同为美国陆军航空兵提供的一份内部报告。





$$F = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$R = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 C_d A$$

$$\text{the wave slope} = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \text{ (uncertainty) } \approx \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \text{ (uncertainty) } \approx \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \text{ (uncertainty) } \approx \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \text{ (uncertainty) } \approx \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = I - R - \rho g v$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -g v$$

Example 10.1.1

Suppose a particle is moving with a constant acceleration  $a$ .

Let  $v$  be the velocity of the particle at time  $t$ .

Then  $\frac{dv}{dt} = a$ .

In the calculation for acceleration, it was assumed that

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = \text{constant} = a \quad \text{then}$$

$$v = v_0 + at \quad (1)$$

Use equation (1) to find

$$(v_0 + at) \frac{d\theta}{dt} = -g \sin \theta$$

$$\text{or} \quad -\frac{d\theta}{\sin \theta} = g \frac{dt}{v_0 + at}$$

If at  $t=0$ ,  $\theta = \theta_0$ , then

$$\int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{\sin \theta} = -\frac{g}{v_0 + at} \int_0^t dt$$

$$\ln \left| \frac{\tan \frac{\theta}{2}}{\tan \frac{\theta_0}{2}} \right| = -\frac{g}{v_0 + at} t$$

$$\boxed{\frac{\tan \frac{\theta}{2}}{\tan \frac{\theta_0}{2}} = e^{-\frac{g}{v_0 + at} t}}$$

20

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt}$$

$$R^2 (1 - \sin \theta) = \frac{r^2}{\sin \theta} (1 + \sin \theta)$$

$$\sin \theta (r^2 + R^2) = R^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) &= -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

(8)

$$\text{Then } r_j = r \sin \theta = v_0 \int \sin \theta dt = \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$y = v_0 \int_0^t \sin \theta dt, \quad \text{but } \frac{d}{dt} dt = d\theta, \quad dt = \frac{d\theta}{\omega}$$

$$y = \frac{v_0}{\omega} \int_0^{\theta} \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\frac{y}{v_0} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left[ -\cos \theta \right]_0^{\theta} = \frac{1}{\omega} (1 - \cos \theta)$$

$$\text{Similarly } \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

$$\text{Similarly } \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

$$\text{If we let } \theta_0 = \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta_1, \text{ then } k^2 = \frac{1 + \cos \theta_0}{1 - \cos \theta_0}$$

$$\frac{1}{k} = \tan \frac{\theta_0}{2}$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{k} = \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\theta_0}{2}$$

$$1 - \cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2}$$

(14)

Integrate (1)  $\int_0^1$

$$1 - \zeta = \frac{1}{\sigma} + \frac{f}{\sigma_0} = 1 + \frac{f}{\sigma_0}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{f}{\sigma_0} = \zeta - 1 \quad \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = 1}$$

$$\zeta = 1 - \int_0^1 \sigma \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi = 1 - \frac{\sigma_0}{n} \int_0^1 \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi$$

$$\boxed{\zeta = 1 - \frac{\sigma_0}{n} \int_0^1 \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi}$$

dimensionless

then

$$n \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma_0}{n} \int_0^1 \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi \right) = 1 + r = \ln \sigma \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma_0}{n} \int_0^1 \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi \right)$$

$$n \left( 1 + \frac{\ln \sigma}{n} \right) - 1 + r = \sigma_0 \left( 1 + \frac{\ln \sigma}{n} \right) \int_0^1 \frac{F}{\sigma_0} d\xi$$

$$n = \frac{1 + r}{1 + \frac{\ln \sigma}{n}} = \frac{1 + r}{1 + \frac{\ln \sigma}{n}}$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\xi$

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{d\xi} \left( 1 + \frac{\ln \sigma}{n} \right) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\sigma}{d\xi} = \frac{F}{\sigma_0}}$$

$$-\frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\sigma}{d\xi} = \frac{F}{\sigma_0} \Rightarrow \frac{d\sigma}{d\xi} = -\frac{F}{\sigma_0} \sigma$$

$$\int P d\mathbf{s} = v_0 \int (1 + \tan \theta) d\mathbf{s} = \log(1 + \tan \theta) \quad , \quad (1 + \tan \theta) = \frac{v_0^2}{h^2 \gamma^2}$$

$$= v_0 \int \frac{1}{k} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k} - \log(1 + \tan \theta)$$

$$= \frac{1}{k} v_0 \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k} - \log(1 + \tan \theta)$$

$$\frac{d \int P d\mathbf{s}}{d \tan \theta} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{k} v_0 \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k}}}{1 + \tan \theta}$$

$$f - r = (1 + \tan \theta) e^{-\frac{1}{k} v_0 \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k}} \left\{ C - v_0 \int_0^x e^{\frac{1}{k} v_0 \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k}} d\mathbf{s} \right\}$$

$$f - r_0 = (1 + \tan \theta_0) e^{-\frac{1}{k} v_0 \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{k}} C$$

$$\text{But} \quad f - r_0 = 1 + \tan \theta_0$$

1. 1. 1.

$$x = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$x = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right)} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

2

$\delta$  is really  $\frac{1}{c}$  where  $c$  = effective exhaust velocity

$$\sum v_i \delta = \frac{v_i}{c}$$

$$c = \frac{R}{M_p} = \frac{R(p)}{2} v^2 C_0 \left( \frac{T}{T_0} \right) \frac{A}{M_p} \quad \therefore \text{so velocity of sound}$$

$$= \frac{R}{2} v^2 \frac{A}{M_p} = \frac{R}{2} \left( \frac{p}{\rho} \right) S^2 C_0 \left( \frac{T}{T_0} \right)$$

Let us start by assuming  $v_0 = 160 \text{ ft/sec}$

$$c = 6400 \text{ ft/sec}$$

$$v_0 \delta = \frac{1}{40}$$

$$\text{Volume} = \frac{\pi}{2} d^2 x dx - \text{for sphere} = \pi d^2$$

Assume average of  $q_0 = 1.6$ . Then

$$2\pi d^2 \times 1.6 = 62.3 = 10,000$$

$$d^2 = \frac{10,000}{62.3 \times 1.6 \times 2\pi} = 15.96$$

$$d = 3.99$$

$$L = 15.96 \text{ ft } \log$$



$$D = K_D \rho d^3 v^2 = C_D \frac{\pi}{4} d^3 v^2$$

$$K_D = \frac{\pi}{4} C_D \quad \boxed{C_D = \frac{4}{\pi} K_D}$$

Take  $L = 31.24 \text{ ft}, \quad R_2 = 160 \times 31.24 \times 6360 = 1.60 \times 3.124 \times 6.36 \times 10^4$   
 $= 3.220 \times 10^8$

$$C_f = \frac{0.455}{(2.346)^{2.58}} = 0.00162$$

Area  $\pi \times 2.17625 \times 2.176$

Base area  $\frac{\pi}{4} \times 2.176^2 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Area} \\ \text{Base area} \end{array} \right\} \text{Ratio } 20$

$C_D$  due to skin friction = 0.05506

1.  $C_D$  due to skin friction = 0.05506

$D/L$	$K_D$	$C_D$	$C_D + C_{Df}$
0	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.01	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002
0.02	0.0004	0.0004	0.0008
0.03	0.0009	0.0009	0.0018
0.04	0.0016	0.0016	0.0032
0.05	0.0025	0.0025	0.0050
0.06	0.0036	0.0036	0.0072
0.07	0.0049	0.0049	0.0098
0.08	0.0064	0.0064	0.0128
0.09	0.0081	0.0081	0.0162
0.10	0.0100	0.0100	0.0200
0.12	0.0144	0.0144	0.0288
0.14	0.0196	0.0196	0.0392
0.16	0.0256	0.0256	0.0512
0.18	0.0324	0.0324	0.0648
0.20	0.0400	0.0400	0.0800

$$\frac{2}{3} \times 1000 =$$

$$Re = 160 \times 7 \times 630 = 160 \times 0.7 \times 6.3 \times 10^6 = 7.15 \times 10^6$$

$$\log Re = 6.854, \quad C_f = \frac{0.455}{(0.854)^{1/4}} = 0.00318$$

$$\text{Area ratio} = \frac{\pi \times 10.5 \times 55.5}{\frac{\pi}{4} \times 10.5^2} = \frac{6 \times 55.5}{10.5} = 31.1$$

$$\Delta C_D = 0.0672 \quad 2\Delta C_D = 0.1344$$

$\Delta C_D$	$C_D$	$C_L$
0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
0.0002	0.0002	0.0002
0.0003	0.0003	0.0003
0.0004	0.0004	0.0004
0.0005	0.0005	0.0005
0.0006	0.0006	0.0006
0.0007	0.0007	0.0007
0.0008	0.0008	0.0008
0.0009	0.0009	0.0009
0.0010	0.0010	0.0010
0.0011	0.0011	0.0011
0.0012	0.0012	0.0012
0.0013	0.0013	0.0013
0.0014	0.0014	0.0014
0.0015	0.0015	0.0015
0.0016	0.0016	0.0016
0.0017	0.0017	0.0017
0.0018	0.0018	0.0018
0.0019	0.0019	0.0019
0.0020	0.0020	0.0020



## 2.7

### Jet Turbine Calculation

#### 喷气透平计算——推力增加器

作者在一份题为“Jet Turbine Calculation”（喷气透平计算）的手稿中，做了有关推力增加器的计算。工作时间大约在1941—1943年间。

与其他热机相比，液体火箭发动机能更有效地将热能转化为动能。然而，实际上在大气层的较低部分，火箭尚未达到足够高的速度，发动机向大气排出的热射流中仍然具有相当大的动能和热能未被利用。值得考虑将这种白白浪费的能量转化为有用能量的可能性，譬如一种可能是，利用射流来驱动涡轮叶片，为火箭的推进剂泵提供动力；另一种可能是，将射流用作推力增加器（thrust augmentor）的动力。

一个简单的推力增加器的主要结构，就是在发动机喷管的周围套上一个两端打开的粗管。为了充分利用发动机喷管所喷出的射流的能量，不让射流直接喷入大气，而是让它再流入那个直径较粗的管子，使其引射粗管内的冷空气一起运动，然后再排入大气。Theodore von Kármán（冯·卡门）让作者计算从热气流引射冷空气直到最后排气这样一个过程的工作性能。

这里选印了这份计算手稿中的一部分，共计13页。其中，前面2页是von Kármán给作者的提纲，要求作者计算压力损失 $\Delta p$ 与被引射的质量流和热射流的质量流的比值 $\mu$ 之间的关系，后面10页是作者所做的方程推导和演算，最后一页是反映计算结果的两类曲线，说明随着质量流比值 $\mu$ 的变化，压力损失 $\Delta p$ 与资用功和热射流的动能之比是怎样变化的规律。

作者在1945年编写《Jet Propulsion》（喷气推进）一书时，将上述有关推力增加器的内容编入该书第11章的第3节，该节的题目是“Methods of Utilizing Energy Lost in the Jet”（发动机喷出射流所损失的能量的利用）。

Dr. Tsien

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 + \frac{2h_1}{V^2} + \mu \left[ \frac{\beta_1}{\gamma-1} \frac{p_0 - \Delta p}{\rho_2 V^2} + \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right] &= \\
 = \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} \left[ \frac{\lambda p_0}{F_0} \frac{1+\mu \gamma}{1+\mu} - \frac{\lambda p_0}{F_0} \frac{\Delta p/p_0}{1+\mu} \right] + \\
 + \frac{1}{1+\mu} \left[ 1 + \mu \frac{\gamma^*}{\gamma} - \frac{\lambda p_0}{F_0} \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \right]^2
 \end{aligned}$$

$h_1$  = potential energy of jet exhaust per unit mass

$V$  = jet exhaust velocity

$\mu$  = mass ratio: secondary massflow/primary mass flow

$p_0$  = atmospheric pressure

$\Delta p$  = suction produced in throat augmentor

$\rho_2$  = density of secondary air in throat of augmentor

$v$  = air velocity in throat of augmentor

$A$  = augmentor throat area =  $\pi$  times jet exhaust area

$F_0$  = primary thrust

$\gamma = c_p/c_v$  for air

$\gamma^* = c_p/c_v$  for mixture

$\rho_1$  = density of jet exhaust,  $\rho_0$  density of outside air

Moreover  $\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} = \frac{p_1}{p_0} \left( \frac{T_0}{T_1} \right)^{1/\gamma}$ ,  $\frac{V}{V^*} = \frac{p_1}{p_0} \left( \frac{T_0}{T_1} \right)^{1/\gamma}$

$$\frac{V}{V^*} = \frac{1}{\mu} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \frac{1}{\rho_2} \left( \frac{p_1}{p_0} \right)^{1/\gamma} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}$$

$$\frac{V}{V^*} = \mu \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}$$

and

$$\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} = \mu \frac{p_1}{p_0} \left( \frac{T_0}{T_1} \right)^{1/\gamma}$$

Let us assume  $\Delta p$  occurs in

St. Toran

 Limiting case  $\mu=0$ 

$$1 + \frac{2\mu}{\gamma^2} = \frac{2\gamma^2}{\gamma^2 + 1} \left[ \frac{\rho_{p0}}{\rho_0} - \left( \frac{\rho_{p0}}{\gamma} \right)^2 \frac{\Delta p}{\rho_{p0}} \right] + \left[ 1 - \frac{\rho_{p0}}{\gamma} \frac{\Delta p}{\rho_{p0}} \right]^2$$

or

$$\left( 1 + \frac{2\mu}{\gamma^2} \right) \frac{\gamma^2}{\gamma^2 + 1} = \frac{\rho_{p0} 2\gamma^2}{\rho_0 \gamma^2 + 1} x + x^2$$

$$x = 1 - \frac{\rho_{p0}}{\gamma} \frac{\Delta p}{\rho_{p0}}$$

with  $\frac{2\mu}{\gamma^2} = 3$

$$\frac{\rho_{p0}}{\rho_0} = 3\%$$

$$\gamma = 1.2$$

$$Q = 50 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$$

$$\rho_0 = 2100 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$= 14.8 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\gamma = 200 \text{ kg}$$

$$\frac{\rho_{p0}}{\gamma} = 3\%$$

$$2 = 12x^2 \gamma x + x^2$$

~~$$x = 1 - \frac{\rho_{p0}}{\gamma} \frac{\Delta p}{\rho_{p0}}$$~~

$$x^2 + 4.5x - 2 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{-4.5 \pm \sqrt{4.5^2 + 8}}{2} = 0.95$$

$$3\% \frac{\Delta p}{\rho_0} = 1 - 0.95$$

$$\frac{\Delta p}{\rho_0} = \frac{0.95}{3\%} = 256$$

$$\rho_0 = 2100 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\Delta p = 540 \text{ kg/m}^3 = 104 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$$

## Jet Turbine Calculation

 $p_0$  = atmospheric pressure $\rho_0$  = atmospheric density $T_0$  = atmospheric temperature. $\gamma = c_p/c_v$  for air. = 1.4 $p_0 - \Delta p$  = pressure in the throat of the augmentor $\beta = p_0 - \Delta p$  = pressure in the throat of the augmentorCall  $\Delta p$  = pressure drop across the turbine wheel. $\beta = p_0 - \Delta p$  = pressure in the throat of the augmentor

$$\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} = \left( \frac{p_0 - \Delta p}{p_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

 $v$  = air velocity in throat of augmentor $V$  = jet exhaust velocity $\mu$  = secondary mass flow / primary mass flow

$$\mu = \frac{v (n-1) \rho_2}{V \rho_1}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{v}{V} = \mu \frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}$$

$$\text{where } \rho = \rho_0 \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta p}{p_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}, \quad \text{jet exhaust velocity } V = \sqrt{\frac{2 \gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{p_0 - \Delta p}{p_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} \right)}$$

here



the equation of continuity

$$(n-1)v\rho_2 + V\rho_2 = n u \rho_2$$

the equation of momentum

$$(n-1)v\rho_2 v + V\rho_2 V = n u \rho_2 u + n \Delta p$$

The energy equation

$U_1$  = potential energy of jet exhaust / unit mass

$$(U_1 + \frac{1}{2}V^2)\rho_2 V + (\frac{1}{2}\frac{h^2 \omega^2}{\rho_2} + \frac{1}{2}v^2) \rho_2 v = \rho_2 \Delta p$$

$$= (\frac{1}{2}\frac{h^2 \omega^2}{\rho_2} + \frac{1}{2}v^2) [(n-1)v\rho_2 + V\rho_2]$$

$T_2$  = temperature of gas at exit of nozzle

$$= T_0 (1 - \frac{\Delta p}{p_0})^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

$\gamma$  = the ratio of specific heats of the gas

$$= \frac{C_p + C_v}{C_p - C_v} = \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1}$$



$$\beta_3 = \frac{\beta' + \kappa_1}{\mu + \kappa_2}, \quad \kappa_1 = \gamma \frac{c_1'}{c_v}, \quad \kappa_2 = \frac{c_2'}{c_v}$$

The equation of momentum can be written as

$$(n-1)v^2\beta_2 + V^2\beta_1 = \mu[(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1] + n\Delta\beta$$

$$\text{or} \quad \mu = \frac{(n-1)v^2\beta_2 + V^2\beta_1 - n\Delta\beta}{(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1}$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta_3} = \frac{n\mu}{(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1} = \frac{n[(n-1)v^2\beta_2 + V^2\beta_1 - n\Delta\beta]}{[(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1]^2}$$

Therefore the energy equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{(\mu_1 + \frac{1}{2}V^2)\beta_1 V + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \frac{\beta_0 - \Delta\beta}{\beta_2} + \frac{1}{2}v^2(n-1)v\beta_2}{(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1} \\ &= \frac{\beta_3}{\beta_3-1} \frac{\beta_0 n[(n-1)v^2\beta_2 + V^2\beta_1 - n\Delta\beta]}{[(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1]^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{[(n-1)v^2\beta_2 + V^2\beta_1 - n\Delta\beta]^2}{[(n-1)v\beta_2 + V\beta_1]^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & [(n-1)v^2 \rho_2 + V^2 \rho_2] \left[ \left( \frac{\mu_1}{V^2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\rho_0 - \Delta \rho}{\rho_2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{V^2} (n-1) \rho_2 \right] \\
 &= [(n-1)v^2 \rho_2 + V^2 \rho_2 - n \Delta \rho] \left[ \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2 - 1} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} + \frac{1}{2} [(n-1)v^2 \rho_2 + V^2 \rho_2 - n \Delta \rho] \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & [(n-1) \frac{v}{V} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} + 1] \left[ \left( \frac{\mu_1}{V^2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho_0 - \Delta \rho}{\rho_2 V^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{V^2} (n-1) \frac{v}{V} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} \right] \\
 &= [(n-1) \frac{v^2}{V^2} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} + 1 - n \frac{\Delta \rho}{V^2 \rho_2}] \left[ \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2 - 1} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2 V^2} + \frac{1}{2} [(n-1) \frac{v^2}{V^2} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} + 1 - n \frac{\Delta \rho}{V^2 \rho_2}] \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$(n-1) \frac{v}{V} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} = (n-1) \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} \mu \frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} = \mu$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\mu+1) \left[ \left( \frac{2\mu_1}{V^2} + 1 \right) + \left( \frac{2\mu}{V^2} \right) \frac{\rho_0 - \Delta \rho}{\rho_2 V^2} + \frac{v^2}{V^2} \mu \right] \\
 &= \left[ \mu \frac{v}{V} + 1 - n \frac{\Delta \rho}{V^2 \rho_2} \right] \left[ \frac{2\mu_1}{V^2 - 1} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} + \left[ \mu \frac{v}{V} + 1 - \frac{n \Delta \rho}{V^2 \rho_2} \right] \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 1 + \frac{2\mu_1}{V^2} + \mu \left( \frac{2\mu}{V^2} \frac{\rho_0 - \Delta \rho}{\rho_2 V^2} + \frac{v^2}{V^2} \right) \\
 &= \frac{2\mu_1}{V^2 - 1} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} \left[ \frac{1 + \mu \frac{v}{V}}{1 + \mu} - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} \frac{\Delta \rho / \rho_0}{1 + \mu} \right] \\
 &+ \frac{1}{1 + \mu} \left[ 1 + \mu \frac{v}{V} - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho_2} \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_0} \right]^2
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\rho_0 - \Delta \rho}{\rho_0^2 V^2} &= \frac{n \rho_1}{\rho_1^2 V^2} \cdot \frac{1 - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}}{n \rho_1 / \rho_1} = \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \cdot \frac{1 - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{V} \cdot \frac{n-1}{\mu} \\ &= \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \left(1 - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}\right) \frac{1}{V} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{\mu} \end{aligned}$$

Our equation then becomes

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{2H_1}{V^2} + \frac{2V}{V-1} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \left(1 - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}\right) \frac{1}{V} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} + \mu \frac{V^2}{V^2} \\ = \frac{2H_1}{V^2-1} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \left[ \frac{1 + \mu \frac{V}{V}}{1 + \mu} - \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \frac{\frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}}{1 + \mu} \right] \\ + \frac{1}{1 + \mu} \left[ 1 + \mu \frac{V}{V} - \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \frac{\frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}}{1 + \mu} \right]^2 \\ (1 + \mu) \frac{1 + \frac{2H_1}{V^2} + \mu \frac{V^2}{V^2}}{\left(\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0}\right)^2} + \frac{2V}{V-1} \frac{1}{V} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0} \left(1 - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_1}\right) (1 + \mu) \\ = \frac{2H_1}{V^2-1} \left( \frac{1 + \mu \frac{V}{V}}{\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0}} - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_0} \right) + \left( \frac{1 + \mu \frac{V}{V}}{\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_0}} - \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho_0} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \left[ \frac{2f}{x-1} \frac{v}{f} - \frac{1}{x} \frac{1+\mu}{\frac{df}{dx}} - \frac{2f}{x-1} - \frac{1+\mu}{\frac{df}{dx}} \right] \frac{df}{dx}$$

$$+ \int \left[ \frac{1+\mu}{\frac{df}{dx}} \right]^2 + \frac{2f}{x-1} \frac{1+\mu}{\frac{df}{dx}} - \frac{2f}{x-1} \frac{v}{f} \frac{1}{x} \frac{df}{dx} - \frac{1}{x} \frac{2df}{\frac{df}{dx}} \frac{1}{\frac{df}{dx}} \int dx$$

$$\frac{1}{2} d... \quad T = (x-1) \frac{2}{x} v + \frac{2}{x} - x \frac{df}{dx}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = 1 + (x-1) \frac{2}{x} \frac{v}{f} - \frac{x \frac{df}{dx}}{v \frac{df}{dx}}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = 1 - \frac{v}{f} - \frac{\frac{df}{dx}}{\frac{df}{dx}} \frac{df}{dx}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{1}{x-1} \frac{v}{f} = \frac{1}{x-1} \frac{v}{f} \frac{2}{x} = \frac{1}{x-1} \frac{2}{x} \frac{v}{f} = \frac{1}{x-1} \frac{2}{x} \frac{v}{f}$$

$$\frac{2}{x-1} \frac{v}{f} = 1 + \frac{1}{x-1} \frac{df}{dx}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)}{1 + \frac{\frac{1}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_2} \frac{1}{f_3}}{\frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3}}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)}{1 + \frac{\frac{1}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_2} \frac{1}{f_3}}{\frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3}}}$$

$$+ \frac{\frac{1}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_2} \frac{1}{f_3}}{\frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3}} \left[ \frac{\frac{1}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_2} \frac{1}{f_3}}{\frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)}{1 + \frac{\frac{1}{f_1} \frac{1}{f_2} \frac{1}{f_3}}{\frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3}}}$$

$$\left[ \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{f_0} \left( \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} + \frac{1}{f_3} \right)$$











# 工程控制论

## 3.1

### Optimum Thrust Programming for a Sounding Rocket

#### 探空火箭推力的优化规划

这是作者在 1951 年和他的研究生 R. C. Evans 合作发表的“Optimum Thrust Programming for a Sounding Rocket”（探空火箭推力的优化规划）一文的部分手稿。

怎样使探空火箭经济而有效地达到最大高度是一个现实问题，应该对火箭在上升过程中的推力随时间的变化做一个适宜的规划

G. Hamel 早在 1927 年就研究过这一问题，但 Hamel 的论文写得太简单而不容易看懂。于是，作者提出了下面一个更一般的问题，即：在给定推进剂性能的条件下，若假设火箭的排气速度是常数，要把指定质量的设备送上指定的高度，那么应该采取什么样的推力随时间变化的关系，才能让最初的质量（包括火箭加燃料）达到最小值。

作者曾经做过多种试探而均不满意，手稿多达一百多页。这里只选印了其中的 12 页。前面的 6 页只反映作者推演到第 110 页以后的两种试探，然而作者分别写上了“Unsatisfactory !!!”（不满意!!!）和“(N.G.)”的结论，这里“N.G.”是“行不通”的意思。后面的 6 页上的提法则是作者比较满意的方案，后来发表的论文便是从这里出发，给出了通解，又考虑了空气阻力随速度的平方成正比和随速度的一次方成正比的两种情况，分别给出了数值算例。

Variational Problem

(I) (Hunsaker 1959)  
Formulation of the Problem We try to determine the best way of variation of thrust [assuming here that the exhaust velocity is constant] so that by starting out with zero velocity to reach the altitude "h" with the final mass  $M_0$  with minimum starting mass  $M_0$ .

Ref. G. Hameel, "Über eine mit dem Problem der Rakete zusammenhängende Aufgabe der Variationsrechnung". ZAMM 7 451-452 (1927)

Formulation of Variational Problem Let us put  $M$  = instantaneous mass of the rocket,  $C$  = exhaust velocity of the rocket,  $u = \frac{ds}{dt}$  = velocity of the rocket,  $W(s, u)$  = drag of the rocket. Then the differential equation of motion is

$$M \frac{du}{dt} + C \frac{dM}{dt} + W(s, u) + Mg = 0 \quad (1)$$

Now this equation can be taken as a linear differential equation in  $M$  and put into the form

$$\frac{dM}{dt} + \left( \frac{1}{C} \frac{du}{dt} + \frac{g}{C} \right) M = - \frac{1}{C} W(s, u) \quad (2)$$

This can be integrated as

$$M = e^{-\left(\frac{u}{c} + \frac{gt}{c}\right)} \int_0^t -\frac{1}{c} W(s, u) e^{\frac{t}{c} + \frac{gs}{c}} dt \\ + \text{Constant} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{u}{c} + \frac{gt}{c}\right)}.$$

$$M_a = \text{Constant} \cdot e^{-\frac{u_a}{c}} \quad (3)$$

$$M_c = e^{-\left(\frac{u_c}{c} + \frac{gt_c}{c}\right)} \int_0^{t_c} -\frac{1}{c} W(s, u) e^{\frac{t}{c} + \frac{gs}{c}} dt \\ + \text{constant} \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{u_c}{c} + \frac{gt_c}{c}\right)} \quad (4)$$

$$(4), \text{Constant} = M_c e^{\frac{u_c}{c} + \frac{gt_c}{c}} + \int_0^{t_c} \frac{1}{c} W(s, u) e^{\frac{t}{c} + \frac{gs}{c}} dt$$

$$M_a = e^{-\frac{u_a}{c}} \int_0^{t_c} \frac{1}{c} W(s, u) e^{\frac{t}{c} + \frac{gs}{c}} dt + M_c e^{-\frac{u_c}{c} + \frac{u_a}{c} + \frac{gt_c}{c}} \quad (5)$$

Now we have assumed that  $u_a = 0$ ,

$$M_a = \int_0^{t_c} \frac{1}{c} W(s, u) e^{\frac{t}{c} + \frac{gs}{c}} dt + M_c e^{\frac{u_c}{c} + \frac{gt_c}{c}} \quad (6)$$

This can be put into the form

$$M_a = \int_0^{t_c} f\left(s, \frac{ds}{dt}, t\right) dt + F\left[\left[\frac{ds}{dt}\right]_{t_c}, t_c\right] \quad (7)$$

now during the coasting flight, (1) becomes

$$M_0 \frac{du}{dt} + W(s, u) + M_0 g = 0$$

$$\text{or } M_0 \frac{du}{ds} u + W(s, u) + M_0 g = 0 \quad (8)$$

Hence with the condition that  $u=0$  for  $s=h$  we have the integral of (8)

$$u_0 = V(s) \quad (9)$$

in fact, if " $h$ " is high, we take the following approximate relation

$$u_0 = \sqrt{2g(h-s)} \quad (9a)$$

We can now state the variation problem as follows. To minimize  $M_0$ , & at the same time the end point must lie on the curve (9). [or (9a)]

Solution of the Variational Problem. We have from (2)

$$\begin{aligned} \delta M_0 &= \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \delta s \right]_{t_0} + \int_0^{t_0} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \right) \right] \delta s \, dt \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{c} M_0 e^{\frac{u_0}{c} + \frac{g t_0}{c}} \left( \frac{du_0}{ds_0} + g \frac{dt_0}{ds_0} \right) \delta s \\ &= \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} + \frac{1}{c} M_0 e^{\frac{u_0}{c} + \frac{g t_0}{c}} \left( \frac{du_0}{ds_0} + g \frac{1}{\frac{ds_0}{dt_0}} \right) \right] \delta s \\ &\quad + \int_0^{t_0} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \right) \right] \delta s \, dt. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore for  $S/k=0$  we have to solve

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial S} - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \right) = 0 \quad (10a)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = 0$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} = \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = 0$$

(10a) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = 0$$

Thus (10a) can be re-written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left( \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right) = 0 \quad (10)$$

$$\text{Let } W = \frac{1}{2} \sigma(s) u^2 = k \sigma(s) u^2$$

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial S} = k \sigma'(s) u^2, \quad \frac{\partial W}{\partial u} = k \sigma(s) u$$

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial t} = k \left[ \sigma(s) \dot{u} + u \dot{\sigma}(s) \right] = k \left[ \sigma(s) \dot{u} + u \dot{\sigma}(s) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\partial W}{\partial u} \right) = k \left[ \sigma(s) \ddot{u} + \dot{\sigma}(s) u + \sigma(s) \dot{u} \right] = k \left[ \sigma(s) \ddot{u} + \dot{\sigma}(s) u + \sigma(s) \dot{u} \right]$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma'(s)u'(u) &= \int_0^s \sigma(u)u'(u) du + \sigma(s)u'(u) \frac{du}{dt} + \frac{1}{c} \sigma'(s)u'(u) \\
 &+ \frac{1}{c} \sigma'(s)u'(u) \frac{du}{dt} + \frac{g}{c} \left( \sigma'(s)u'(u) + \frac{\sigma(s)u'(u)}{c} \right) \\
 &= (1 - \frac{g}{c}) \sigma'(s)u'(u) - \frac{1}{c} \left( \frac{du}{dt} + g \right) \sigma'(s)u'(u) \\
 &= \sigma'(s)u'(u) - \frac{g}{c} \sigma(s)u'(u) - \sigma(s)u'(u) \frac{du}{dt} = 0
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10}$$

## (II)

The problem is to find the path of a particle moving in a field of forces, such that the action is a minimum. The way of doing this is to set up the action integral and find the minimum.

The equation of motion can be written as

$$M \frac{d^2 u}{dt^2} = - \frac{dV}{du} = - \frac{d}{du} \left( \frac{1}{2} M \dot{u}^2 + V(u) \right)$$

$$\frac{d^2 u}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{M} \frac{dV}{du} = 0$$

Therefore

$$M = e^{-\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^s \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)} \int_0^s -\frac{W}{u} e^{\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^\tau \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)} d\tau$$

$$+ h e^{-\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^s \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)}$$

$$M_c = e^{-\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^s \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)} \int_0^s -\frac{W}{u} e^{\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^\tau \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)} d\tau$$

$$+ h e^{-\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^s \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)}$$

$$M_h = h$$

$$M_u = \int_0^{t_0} \frac{W}{u} e^{\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^\tau \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)} d\tau + M_c e^{\left(\frac{1}{c} + \frac{g}{c} \int_0^{t_0} \frac{d\tau}{u}\right)}$$

In this form we can readily see that the only way to determine the exact function  $M(t)$  is to know  $W$ .  $M(t)$  is a function of  $t$ .





3

$$\dot{s} = \phi(s) \quad (1)$$

where  $\phi$  is unspecified.

Now let  $s = s(t)$  be the required function, so that

$$s(0) = 0.$$

$$\text{Let } \gamma = \gamma(t), \quad \gamma(0) = 0 \quad (2)$$

(construct the "neighboring" functions of  $s(t)$  as

$$\bar{s}(t) = s(t) + k(t) \gamma(t) \quad (3)$$

where  $k$  is a parameter and not a function of  $t$  the limit time for the "neighboring" vector design is  $(t_1 + \epsilon)$ . Then  $k(0) = 0$ , and  $k(\epsilon) \approx k'(0)\epsilon$

$$\bar{s}_1 = \bar{s}(t_1 + \epsilon) = s(t_1) + \epsilon \dot{s}(t_1) + k'(\epsilon) \gamma(t_1) \quad (4)$$

$$\dot{\bar{s}}_1 = \dot{\bar{s}}(t_1 + \epsilon) = \dot{s}(t_1) + \epsilon \ddot{s}(t_1) + k'(0) \dot{\gamma}(t_1) \quad (5)$$

$\bar{s}_1$  and  $\dot{\bar{s}}_1$  must satisfy (1). Therefore by taking only first order quantities,

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\bar{s}}_1 &= \dot{s}(t_1) + \epsilon \ddot{s}(t_1) + k'(0) \dot{\gamma}(t_1) \\ &= \dot{s}(t_1) + \left( \frac{d\dot{s}}{ds} \right)_{s_1} \left[ s(t_1) + \epsilon \dot{s}(t_1) + k'(0) \gamma(t_1) - s(t_1) \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now } \dot{\bar{s}}(t_1) + k'(0) \dot{\gamma}(t_1) = \left( \frac{d\dot{s}}{ds} \right)_{s_1} \left[ \dot{s}(t_1) + k'(0) \gamma(t_1) \right]$$

$$\text{Or } \left[ \left( \frac{d\dot{s}}{ds} \right)_{s_1} \gamma(t_1) - \dot{\gamma}(t_1) \right] k'(0) = \dot{s}(t_1) - \left( \frac{d\dot{s}}{ds} \right)_{s_1} \dot{s}(t_1) \quad (6)$$

$$\text{This determines } k'(0) = \left( \frac{d\dot{s}}{ds} \right)_{s_1} \dot{s}(t_1)$$

Let us write  $W(t, \dot{s}) = \frac{1}{c}(\dot{s} + g t) = \mathcal{F}(t, \dot{s}, \dot{s})$  (12)

By substituting (11), (10), (12) into (5),  $M_0$  can be considered as a function of  $\dot{s}$  ( $\dot{s}$  and  $\eta$  are considered). Thus

$$M_0(\dot{s}) = \frac{1}{c} \int_{t_1}^{t_1 + \varepsilon} \mathcal{F}(t, \dot{s} + h(t)\eta, \dot{s} + h(t)\dot{\eta}) dt \\ + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(\dot{s}(t_1) + \varepsilon \dot{s}'(t_1) + h(t_1)\dot{\eta}(t_1) + g t_1 + g \varepsilon)}$$

The derivative of the derived function appears that  $\frac{\partial M_0}{\partial \varepsilon} = 0$  at  $\varepsilon = 0$ . But

$$\left( \frac{\partial M_0}{\partial \varepsilon} \right)_{\varepsilon=0} = \frac{1}{c} \mathcal{F}(t_1, \dot{s}_1, \dot{s}_1) + \frac{1}{c} h(t_1) \left[ \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} + \dot{\eta} \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} \right] dt \\ + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(\dot{s}_1 + g t_1)} \left[ \frac{1}{c} (\dot{s}'(t_1) + h'(t_1)\dot{\eta}(t_1) + g) \right] \\ = \frac{1}{c} h'(t_1) \int_{t_1}^{t_1} \eta \left[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} - \frac{1}{h(t)} \left( \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} \right) \right] dt + \frac{1}{c} h'(t_1) \eta(t_1) \left( \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} \right)_{t=t_1} \\ + \frac{1}{c} \mathcal{F}(t_1, \dot{s}_1, \dot{s}_1) + \frac{1}{c} M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(\dot{s}_1 + g t_1)} \left[ (\dot{s}'(t_1) + h'(t_1)\dot{\eta}(t_1) + g) \right]$$

Under the condition that  $\eta(t_1) = 0$ , the function  $\eta$  is arbitrary, therefore, in order the above expression be zero,

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} - \frac{1}{h(t)} \left( \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial \dot{s}} \right)} = 0 \quad (13)$$

②

$$e = h'(t) \eta(t) \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{z}}{\partial \dot{z}} \right)_{t=t_1} + \tilde{z}(t, \dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1) + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} \left[ \tilde{z}_1 + \beta + h'(t) \tilde{z}(t) \right]$$

Substituting the expression for  $\left[ \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \tilde{z}(t_1) - \tilde{z}(t_1) \right]$  and then using (11),

we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[ \ddot{z}_1 - \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 \right] \eta(t) \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{z}}{\partial \dot{z}} \right)_{t=t_1} + \left[ \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \tilde{z}(t) - \tilde{z}(t) \right] \tilde{z}(t, \dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1 \\ & + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} \left[ \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \tilde{z}(t_1) - \tilde{z}(t_1) \right] (\tilde{z}_1 + \beta) + \tilde{z}(t) \left\{ \dot{z}_1 - \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 \right\} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\eta$  is arbitrary,  $\eta(t)$  and  $\tilde{z}(t)$  are also arbitrary, hence for the above relation to be true, we have following two equations:

$$\left\{ \ddot{z}_1 - \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 \right\} \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{z}}{\partial \dot{z}} \right)_{t=t_1} + \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \tilde{z}(t, \dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1) + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} (\tilde{z}_1 + \beta) = 0$$

and

$$\tilde{z}(t, \dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1) + M_1 e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} \left[ \tilde{z}_1 + \beta - \ddot{z}_1 + \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 \right] = 0.$$

The equations can be put into more convenient form by using (12)

$$\tilde{z}(t, \dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1) = e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} W(\dot{z}_1, \ddot{z}_1)$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial \tilde{z}}{\partial \dot{z}} \right)_{t=t_1} = e^{\frac{1}{c}(t_1 + \beta t)} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial W}{\partial \dot{z}} \right) + \frac{W}{c} \right]$$

Then

$$\left\{ \ddot{z}_1 - \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 \right\} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial W}{\partial \dot{z}} \right) + \frac{W}{c} \right] + \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} W + M_1 \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} (\dot{z}_1 + \beta) = 0 \quad (14)$$

$$W + M_1 \left[ \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)_{t=t_1} \dot{z}_1 + \beta \right] = 0 \quad (15)$$

16) use the relation between flight velocity and altitude during coasting. During coasting  $dH/dt=0$ , so (1) gives

$$\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt} + g\right)M_1 + W_1 = 0.$$

Or

$$\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt} \dot{s}_1 + g\right)M_1 + W_1 = 0$$

Since (17) is automatically satisfied if  $\dot{s}_1$  and  $\ddot{s}_1$  satisfies (14) can be written as

$$\ddot{s}_1 \left[ \left( \frac{\partial W}{\partial \dot{s}_1} \right)_1 + \frac{W_1}{c} \right] + \left( \frac{d\phi}{dt} \dot{s}_1 \right) \left[ -\dot{s}_1 \left( \frac{\partial H}{\partial \dot{s}_1} \right)_1 + \frac{W_1}{c} \right] + W_1 + M_1 (\ddot{s}_1 + g) = 0$$

But (15) gives

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = - \frac{W_1 + M_1 g}{M_1 \dot{s}_1}$$

Therefore

$$M_1 \ddot{s}_1 \left[ \left( \frac{\partial W}{\partial \dot{s}_1} \right)_1 + \frac{W_1}{c} \right] = (W_1 + M_1 g) \left[ -\dot{s}_1 \left( \frac{\partial H}{\partial \dot{s}_1} \right)_1 + \frac{W_1}{c} \right] + W_1 + M_1 (\ddot{s}_1 + g)$$

(18)

Use the condition at  $t=t_0$  for the external. To see the condition since  $\dot{s}(t_0)=0$ , it completely and uniquely determines  $\dot{s}(t)$ .

5

Now specialize to

$$W = W_0 e^{-\alpha s} \dot{s}^2$$

(17)

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial \dot{s}} = 2W_0 e^{-\alpha s} \dot{s}$$

Then (16) becomes

$$N_0 M_1 e^{-\alpha \dot{s}_1^2} \ddot{s}_1^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\dot{s}_1}{c} \right) = \left[ N_0 e^{-\alpha \dot{s}_1^2} + M_1 \mu \right] \left[ -N_0 e^{-\alpha \dot{s}_1^2} \left( 1 + \frac{\dot{s}_1}{c} \right) + M_1 \dot{s}_1 + \dot{s}_1' \right]$$

### 3.2

#### The Transfer Functions of Rocket Nozzles

#### 火箭喷管的传递函数

这是作者发表于 1952 年的 “The Transfer Functions of Rocket Nozzles” (火箭喷管的传递函数) 一文的部分手稿, 共有 15 页。

作者讨论的是一个有关火箭发动机的燃烧稳定性的问题。当时有人做过这方面的研究, 他们假设燃烧室内压力增加的百分数与通过燃烧室喷管的质量流率增加的百分数是相等的。作者怀疑这一假设是否成立, 使用一维气体动力学的模型, 仔细考察了质量流率的相对变化与压力的相对变化之间的比值究竟存在什么样的关系。这一比值便称之为火箭喷管的传递函数。假设燃烧室内的流动参数 (如压力、密度、流速等) 在平均值附近发生振荡, 作者的研究结果是, 这一比值不是常数而与振荡频率有关。只是在频率很低的情况下, 前人的假设才近似成立; 而在频率很高的情况下, 这个比值则近似等于  $1 + (\gamma \cdot M_1)^{-1}$ , 其中  $\gamma$  是气体的比热比, 而  $M_1$  是喷管进口处的马赫数。

这里选印了手稿中的两个部分。一部分选自作者认为不满意而放弃的部分推导手稿, 选了其中的 3 页。注意作者在第 1 页的标题前用红笔注上 “Not Correct!” (不正确!); 并在第 16 页上用红笔打了问号, 作者在这里已经发现了问题。另一部分是为发表论文而撰写的初始底稿, 共 12 页。从两部分的对比中可以看到, 作者发现喷管出口处的情况相当复杂, 必须要考虑喷出的射流与周围空气的相互作用, 而前面之所以 “不正确” 就是因为忽略了周围空气的影响。

Notation

### Impedance of a De Laval Nozzle

1) Exit jet

$q$  = disturbance velocity potential

$$\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial q}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial t^2} + 2 \frac{M}{a} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial t \partial x} + M^2 \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2}$$

Let  $q = f(r) \sin \omega(t - \frac{x}{c} + \alpha)$

$$\frac{d^2 f}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{df}{dr} - \left(\frac{\omega}{c}\right)^2 f = -\left(\frac{\omega}{a}\right)^2 f + 2 \frac{M\omega}{a} \frac{df}{dx} - M^2 \left(\frac{\omega}{c}\right)^2 f$$

$$\frac{d^2 f}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{df}{dr} + \left[ \left( \frac{\omega}{a} - M \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 \right] f = 0$$

$$f = A J_0 \left( \sqrt{\left( \frac{\omega}{a} - M \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2} r \right)$$

Let  $R$  = radius of jet, then

$$J_0 \left( \sqrt{\left( \frac{\omega}{a} - M \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2} R \right) = 0$$

If  $\lambda$  is the first root of  $J_0$ , then

$$\left[ \left( \frac{\omega}{a} - M \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{c} \right)^2 \right] R^2 = \lambda^2$$

But  $\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + M a' + \frac{q'}{f} = 0$

Or  $\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + M \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{f} r \frac{\partial q}{\partial r} = 0$

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + M \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + a^2 \frac{q'}{f} = 0$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 Or \quad d^2 \frac{f'}{f} &= - \left( \frac{f''}{f} + 2 \left( \frac{f'}{f} \right)^2 \right) \\
 &= - \omega f(r) \cos \omega \left( t - \frac{r}{c} + u \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{H}{c} \right] \\
 &= - \omega c \left( 1 - \frac{H}{c} \right) f(r) \cos \omega \left( t - \frac{r}{c} + u \right) \cdot \frac{1}{c} \\
 &= (c - H) u' = u (c - H) \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

then at exit

$$\boxed{\frac{f'}{f} = H_e^2 \left( \frac{c}{H_e} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right)}$$

$$\left( \frac{\omega a \lambda}{c} \right)^2 \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{H_e}{c} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{H_e}{c} \right)^2 \right] = 1$$

$$\left( 1 - \frac{H_e}{c} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{H_e^2} \left( \frac{H_e}{c} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} \right)^2$$

$$1 - 2 \frac{H_e}{c} + \left( 1 - \frac{1}{H_e^2} \right) \left( \frac{H_e}{c} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} \right)^2$$

$$\left[ 1 - \left( \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} \right)^2 \right] \left( \frac{c}{H_e} \right)^2 - 2 \left( \frac{c}{H_e} \right) + \left( 1 - \frac{1}{H_e^2} \right) = 0$$

$$\left\{ \frac{c}{H_e} = \frac{1}{\left[ 1 - \left( \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} \right)^2 \right]} \right\} \left\{ 1 \pm \sqrt{1 - \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{H_e^2} \right] \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} \right)^2 \right]} \right\}$$

$c > 0$  then if  $\frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} < 1$ , then next case is not

if  $\frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} > 1$ , then

$$\frac{c}{H_e} = \frac{1}{\left[ \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} - 1 \right]} \left\{ 1 + \sqrt{1 - \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{H_e^2} \right] \left[ \frac{a \lambda}{\omega R} - 1 \right]} \right\} = 1$$

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$$\frac{\bar{p}(1 + \frac{p'}{p})\bar{u}(1 + \frac{u'}{u}) - \bar{p}\bar{u}}{\bar{p}\bar{u}} \approx \frac{p'}{p} + \frac{u'}{u}$$

$$\frac{p'}{p} = \gamma \frac{u'}{u}$$

$$\mu = \left( \frac{u'}{u} / \frac{p'}{p} \right)_0 = \frac{F(0) + G(0)}{\gamma F(0)} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[ 1 + \frac{G(0)}{F(0)} \right]$$

$$\mu' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[ 1 + \frac{G'(0)}{F'(0)} \right] = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\frac{M_0^2 - 1}{2 - M_0^2}}{\frac{M_0^2 - 1}{1 - \frac{M_0^2}{2}} + ( \dots )^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}}$$

$$\mu' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{2 - \left( \frac{M_0^2 - 1}{M_0^2 - 1} \right) e^{i \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{M_0^2 - 1}{1 - M_0^2} \frac{1 + \frac{M_0^2 - 1}{2} \frac{M_0^2}{1 + \frac{M_0^2 - 1}{2} M_0^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}}$$

$$\text{Let } M_0 = 0, \quad M_0 \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu' &= \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{2 - \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} e^{i \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1}}} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{1}{\left[ 2 - \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1} \right) - i \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1} \right) \right]} \\ &= \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\left[ 2 - \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1} \right) \right] + i \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1} \right)}{2 - 2 \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{\gamma-1} \right) + \left( \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \right)^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}}} \end{aligned}$$

### The Hydraulic Impedance of a De Laval Nozzle

Recently, the problem of combustion instability of rocket motor has been studied by several authors (Refs. 1, 2 and 3). In these investigations, it is commonly assumed that the percentage increase of the mass rate of flow in the nozzle is equal to the percentage increase of pressure in the rocket cylinder. It is however not certain whether this assumption is correct. Since the flow conditions enter in a direct manner into the instability calculation, the relation between flow variations and the pressure variations, i.e., the hydraulic impedance of the nozzle, should be determined more carefully. It is the purpose of this paper to do this. The result of the present study indicates that the hydraulic impedance of a De Laval nozzle is a rather complex function of the nozzle geometry and the frequency of oscillation and the previous very simple assumption is not justified.

#### Flow Conditions

The flow in the nozzle will be considered as one dimensional, i.e., at each nozzle section, the conditions are taken to be uniform and the only independent variables of the problem are the time  $t$  and the distance along the nozzle  $x$ . Let  $p$  be the pressure,  $\rho$  the density, and  $u$  the velocity. The principal quantities are the fluctuating quantities, thus  $p'$  is the pressure fluctuation. Similarly the unsteady quantities are the steady state or undisturbed quantities. Therefore  $p'/p$  is the fractional oscillating pressure in terms of the steady state pressure. Hence the purpose of this paper can now be stated as simply to compute the vector  $(\frac{p'}{p} + \frac{u'}{u})/(\frac{p'}{p})$  at the entrance to the nozzle.

The conditions at the entrance to the nozzle is fixed by the

plausible assumption that the temperature of the combustion gas is not changed by variations in pressure. Let the gas be considered as a perfect gas, and let the subscript 1 denote the entrance to the nozzle. Then

$$\left(\frac{p'}{p}\right)_1 - \left(\frac{p'}{p}\right)_1 = 0$$

At the exit of the nozzle, the situation is more complicated for one must consider the interaction of the exit jet with the surrounding air. For this purpose, it would be necessary to introduce another independent variable  $r$  to denote the distance from the jet axis and another dependent variable  $v$  to denote velocity in the direction of  $r$ . Then using the subscript 2 to denote quantities at the exit of the nozzle, which are used to represent those in the jet as mixing of the jet and the surrounding air is not considered, one has the following <sup>through</sup> equations of motion in the jet,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{u'}{u_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{u'}{u_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{v'}{u_2} \right) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial u_2}{\partial t} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{u'}{u_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{u'}{u_2} \right) = - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) \quad (13)$$

$$\frac{\partial u_2}{\partial t} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{v'}{u_2} \right) + u_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{v'}{u_2} \right) = - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{p'}{p_2} \right) \quad (14)$$

A relation between  $(p'/p_2)$  and  $(\epsilon/\rho_2)$  is still needed. This is assumed by noting that if there are pressure and density fluctuations in the jet but no temperature fluctuations, i.e., the entropy of the gas must also fluctuate. The entropy fluctuation must then be considered also. Thus if  $\epsilon$  is the amplitude of entropy oscillation and  $\omega$  the angular frequency of the oscillation,



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$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right) + \frac{du}{dx} \left( \frac{u'}{u} + \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right) \right) + \gamma \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right) \right) = \frac{du}{dx} \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right) - \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx} \frac{u'}{u} \quad (12)$$

The equation for constant entropy of any fluid mass is then

$$\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \left[ \frac{p'}{p} - \gamma \frac{u'}{u} \right] = 0 \quad (13)$$

It is convenient in the following calculations to introduce a specific nozzle shape such that the steady velocity in the nozzle varies linearly with  $x$ . The simplest way to satisfy this is

$$u = \frac{u_2}{x_2} x \quad (14)$$

The mean of the  $x$ -axis is not generally at the entrance to the nozzle, it is there only if the steady velocity at entrance is equal to  $u_1$ . With Eq. (14), Eq. (13) becomes

$$\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{u_2}{x_2} x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \left[ \frac{p'}{p} - \gamma \frac{u'}{u} \right] = 0$$

Hence if the entropy is constant at the entrance to the nozzle,

$$\left( \frac{p'}{p} \right)_1 - \gamma \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right)_1 = \text{const} \quad (15)$$

then in general

$$\left( \frac{p'}{p} \right) - \gamma \left( \frac{u'}{u} \right) = \text{const} \left( 1 - \frac{u_2}{x_2} \log \frac{x}{x_1} \right) \quad (16)$$

By eliminating  $(u'/u)$  between Eqs. (12) and (16), the resultant is a second order equation with Eq. (11) constitute a system of two equations for the two unknowns  $(p'/p)$  and  $(u'/u)$ .

Now introduce the nondimensional parameters

$$\xi = \frac{x}{x_2} \quad (17)$$

$$\beta = \frac{u_2 x_2}{u_1} \quad (18)$$

and let

$$\begin{pmatrix} f' \\ g' \end{pmatrix} = f_1(\xi) \sin \omega t + f_2(\xi) \cos \omega t \quad (199)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} h' \\ i' \end{pmatrix} = g_1(\xi) \sin \omega t + g_2(\xi) \cos \omega t \quad (200)$$

then the equations for the  $f_i$  and the  $g_i$  are

$$-\beta f_2(\xi) + \xi [f_1'(\xi) + g_1'(\xi)] = 0$$

$$\beta f_1(\xi) + \xi [-f_2'(\xi) + g_2'(\xi)] = 0$$

$$-\beta f_2(\xi) + \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \xi + \frac{1}{2} \xi^{-1} + \xi f_1'(\xi) \right] = \gamma f_1(\xi) - \frac{1}{M^2} \xi f_1'(\xi) + \varepsilon \cos \beta \left( \log \frac{\xi}{\xi_1} \right) + \frac{\beta}{M^2} \varepsilon \sin \beta \left( \log \frac{\xi}{\xi_1} \right)$$

$$\beta g_1(\xi) + \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \xi + \frac{1}{2} \xi^{-1} + \xi f_2'(\xi) \right] + \xi f_2'(\xi) = \gamma f_2(\xi) - \frac{1}{M^2} \xi f_2'(\xi) - \varepsilon \sin \beta \left( \log \frac{\xi}{\xi_1} \right) + \frac{\beta}{M^2} \varepsilon \cos \beta \left( \log \frac{\xi}{\xi_1} \right)$$

where  $M$  is the local Mach number of the steady flow, a function of  $\xi$  and

$$\xi_1 = \frac{M_0^2}{M_0^2} \quad (201)$$

The equations for  $f$  and  $g$  can be simplified by using complex quantities:

$$F(\xi) = f_1(\xi) + i f_2(\xi) \quad (202)$$

$$G(\xi) = g_1(\xi) + i g_2(\xi) \quad (203)$$

Then

$$\xi [F'(\xi) + G'(\xi)] + i \beta F(\xi) = 0 \quad (204)$$

$$\text{and } (1 + i \beta) G(\xi) + (1 - i \beta) F(\xi) - \xi F(\xi) = \gamma F(\xi) - \frac{1}{M^2} \xi F'(\xi) + \varepsilon \left( \frac{\xi}{\xi_1} \right)^{-i \beta} \left[ 1 + \frac{i \beta}{M^2} \right] \quad (205)$$

Now the Mach number  $M$  can be expressed in terms of  $\xi$ , in fact

$$M^2 = \frac{M_0^2 \xi^2}{1 + \frac{\xi^2}{2} M_0^2 (1 - \xi^2)} \quad (206)$$

where  $M_0$  is the Mach number of the steady state flow at  $\xi = 1$ , and is thus much larger than unity.

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By substituting (9/5) in Eqs. (10) and (15) a single second order equation for  $F(z)$  is obtained. The result can, however, be reduced to more convenient form by using a new independent variable is defined as

$$z = \frac{\frac{1}{2}H_1^2 \xi^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2}H_2^2} \quad (17)$$

It is easy to show that  $z$  is actually the square of the ratio of  $x$  to the so-called critical sound speed. Thus  $z=1$  at the throat of a de Laval nozzle. In terms of  $z$ , the differential equation for  $F$  is

$$\begin{aligned} z(1-z) \frac{d^2 F}{dz^2} - \left[ 2 + \frac{2(1-z)}{\gamma_0} \right] \frac{dF}{dz} - \frac{1}{\gamma_0} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right] F \\ = -i\beta \varepsilon \left( \frac{1}{z} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{1 - i\beta \frac{1}{2}}{2\gamma_0} + \frac{1}{4\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The relation between  $F(z)$  and  $G(z)$  is

$$[2 + i\beta] G(z) = \left[ \gamma_0 + i\beta \right] F(z) - \gamma_0 (1-z) \frac{dF}{dz} + \varepsilon \left( \frac{1}{z} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ 1 - \frac{i\beta \gamma_0}{2\gamma} + \frac{i\beta \gamma_0}{4\gamma} \frac{1}{z} \right] \quad (19)$$

$\bar{z}_1$  is of course the value of  $z$  corresponding to  $\bar{z}_1$  as given by Eq. (12), i.e.,

$$\bar{z}_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{2}H_1^2 \bar{\xi}_1^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2}H_2^2} \quad (20)$$

$\bar{z}_1$  and  $\bar{\xi}_1$  is needed so that Eq. (18) can be solved. At  $x=x_1$  or  $z=\bar{z}_1$ ,  $G(\bar{z}_1)$  has to be calculated by using Eq. (15). Therefore

$$F(\bar{z}_1) = -\frac{\varepsilon}{\beta_1} \quad (21)$$

At

$$\bar{z}_2 = \frac{\frac{1}{2}H_2^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2}H_2^2} \quad (22)$$

Eqs. (10) and (16) has to be satisfied. Hence



$$F(z) = -\frac{1}{\beta} \varepsilon(z) i^{\beta} \quad (132)$$

By knowing  $F(z)$ , one can compute  $G(z)$  by Eq. (19). Then the density oscillations and the solvent oscillations are determined as functions proportional to the amplitude of entropy oscillations  $\varepsilon$ . Since the point of interest is the ratio of the oscillations, the arbitrary  $\varepsilon$  does not really enter into the final result.

### Solution for small $\beta$

Although Eq. (12) is the hypergeometric differential equation having straightforward method of solution, the calculations involved are nevertheless very tedious. For a brief treatment, only cases of either very small frequencies or very large frequencies will be considered.

If the frequency  $\beta$  is very small, the functions  $F$  and  $G$  can be expanded in terms of this parameter:

$$F(z; \beta) = F^0(z) + \beta F^1(z) + \dots \quad (134)$$

$$G(z; \beta) = G^0(z) + \beta G^1(z) + \dots \quad (135)$$

By substituting these expansions into Eqs. (12) and (19) and equating terms of equal powers in  $\beta$ , one has

$$z(1-z) \frac{d^2 F^0}{dz^2} - z \frac{d F^0}{dz} = 0 \quad (136)$$

$$\text{and} \quad z(1-z) \frac{d^2 F^1}{dz^2} - z \frac{d F^1}{dz} = \left( \frac{1}{\beta+1} z \frac{d F^0}{dz} + \frac{1}{\beta+1} F^0 - \varepsilon \right) \quad (137)$$

$$z G^1(z) = (\gamma-1) F^1(z) - (\gamma+1)(1-z) \frac{d F^0}{dz} + \varepsilon \quad (138)$$

and

$$2 G^1(z) = (\gamma-1) F^1(z) - (\gamma+1)(1-z) \frac{d F^1}{dz} + i \left[ F^1(z) - G^1(z) \right] - \frac{i \varepsilon}{2} \log \left( \frac{z}{1-z} \right) \quad (139)$$

The end conditions (31) and (33) now give

E

$$F''(z_1) = -\frac{E}{\gamma-1}; \quad F'''(z_1) = 0 \quad (41)$$

and

$$F''(z_2) = -\frac{E}{\gamma}; \quad F'''(z_2) = -\frac{E}{\gamma} i \log \xi_1 \quad (42)$$

The solution of the equations is now quite easy. There is a singularity about at  $z=1$ , of course. But both  $F''$  and  $F'''$  are expressible in elementary functions. The most important result is knowing the values of  $G''$  and  $G'''$  at the inlet or  $z=z_1$ , thus only these will be explicitly given here.

$$G''(z_1)/F(z_1) = -\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{M_1^2-1}{M_1^2} \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \quad (43)$$

$$\begin{aligned} G'''(z_1)/F(z_1) = & i \left[ \frac{1}{2\gamma} \frac{M_1^2-1}{M_1^2} \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \log \xi_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{M_1^2-1}{M_1^2} \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \right) \right. \\ & + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \frac{M_1^2-1}{1+M_1^2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \frac{1}{M_1^2-1} \left. \left( \frac{\log \xi_1^2}{1-\xi_1^2} - \log \left( 1 - \frac{M_1^2-1}{2} \frac{\xi_1^2}{1+M_1^2} \right) \right) \right] \\ & + \frac{1+\gamma M_1^2}{\gamma^2 M_1^2} \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \log \left( \frac{M_1^2-1}{1+M_1^2} \right) + \left( 1+\xi_1^2 - \frac{M_1^2-1}{2} \frac{1}{M_1^2} \right) \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \log \frac{1+\frac{\gamma-1}{2} M_1^2}{1-M_1^2 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M_1^2 (1-\xi_1^2)} \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{2}{\gamma(\gamma-1)} \frac{M_1^2-1}{M_1^2} \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} - \gamma^2 \right] \left[ \frac{1}{1-\xi_1^2} \log \xi_1^2 + 1 \right] \quad (44) \end{aligned}$$

It is quite clear from these results that since  $G(z_1) \neq 0$ , the fractional increase in mass rate of flow cannot be equal to the fractional increase in pressure. The correct magnitude depends upon the entrance Mach number, the exit Mach number,  $\gamma$  and the frequency of oscillation. In fact, the ratio of fractional increase in mass rate of flow and that of pressure is

$$\left[ \left( \frac{\rho'}{\rho} \right)_1 + \left( \frac{p'}{p} \right)_1 \right] / \left( \frac{p'}{p} \right)_1 = 1 + \frac{G''(z_1)}{F(z_1)} + \beta \frac{G'''(z_1)}{F(z_1)} \quad (45)$$

The discussion of the numerical results will be postponed till a later section.

Solution for large  $\beta$

If the value of  $\beta$  is very large, the dominating term in Eq. (41) is:

$$z(1-z) \frac{dF}{dz^2} - \frac{2i\beta}{\gamma} z \frac{dF}{dz} + \frac{\beta^2}{\gamma(1-z)} F = \beta^2 \varepsilon \left(\frac{z}{z_1}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{4\gamma} \left[\frac{z}{z} - \frac{z-1}{z_1-1}\right] \quad (45)$$

For the particular integral  $F^*$ , take

$$F^*(z) = \mathcal{H}(z) \left(\frac{z}{z_1}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

where  $\mathcal{H}(z)$  is a function of  $z$  not involving  $\beta$ . Therefore by retaining only the highest order terms,

$$\frac{dF^*}{dz^2} \cong -\frac{i\beta}{2} \frac{\mathcal{H}(z)}{z} \left(\frac{z}{z_1}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad (46)$$

$$\frac{d^2 F^*}{dz^2} \cong -\frac{\beta^2}{4} \frac{\mathcal{H}(z)}{z^2} \left(\frac{z}{z_1}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

By substituting these derivatives into Eq. (45), it is found that

$$\mathcal{H}(z) = -\frac{\varepsilon}{\gamma}$$

$$\text{Then } F^*(z) = -\frac{\varepsilon}{\gamma} \left(\frac{z}{z_1}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad (47)$$

To find the complementary function, let

$$F(z) = e^{i\beta\lambda(z)}$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{dF}{dz} = i\beta e^{i\beta\lambda(z)} \frac{d\lambda}{dz} \quad (48)$$

$$\frac{d^2 F}{dz^2} \cong -\beta^2 e^{i\beta\lambda(z)} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{dz}\right)^2$$

By substituting these into the homogeneous equation corresponding to Eq. (45), one has

$$\frac{d\lambda_{1,2}}{dz} = \frac{1}{\gamma(1-z)} \left[ 1 \pm \sqrt{1 + \frac{\beta^2}{2} \frac{1-z}{z}} \right] \quad (49)$$

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$$\lambda_1(z) = \frac{1}{(\gamma+1)} \int_{\frac{z}{2}}^{\frac{z_2}{2}} \left[ 1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1-z}{z}} \right], \quad \lambda_1(z_0) = 0 \quad (50)$$

$$\lambda_2(z) = \frac{1}{(\gamma+1)} \int_{\frac{z}{2}}^{\frac{z_2}{2}} \left[ 1 - \sqrt{1 + \frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1-z}{z}} \right], \quad \lambda_2(z_0) = 0 \quad (51)$$

The complete solution for very large  $\beta$  is then

$$F(z) = A e^{i\beta\lambda_1(z)} + B e^{i\beta\lambda_2(z)} - \frac{\varepsilon}{\beta} \left( \frac{z}{z_0} \right)^{-\frac{1}{\gamma}} \quad (52)$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  are four constants to be determined by the end conditions. To satisfy the end conditions as specified by Eqs. (31) and (33),

$$A + B = -\varepsilon \frac{1}{\beta(z_0)}$$

and

$$A e^{i\beta\lambda_1(z_0)} + B e^{i\beta\lambda_2(z_0)} = 0$$

These equations then determine the constants  $A$  and  $B$ .

Here again, only the final results for  $G(z_0)$  will be explicitly given:

$$G(z_0)/F(z_0) = -\frac{\varepsilon}{\beta} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1-z_0}{z_0}} \cot(\beta\eta) \quad (53)$$

$$\text{where } \eta = \frac{1}{(\gamma+1)} \int_{\frac{z}{2}}^{\frac{z_2}{2}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1-z}{z}}$$

$$\text{or } \eta = \frac{1}{\gamma+1} \left[ \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2}} \left\{ \tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1} - \tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1} \right\} \right.$$

$$\left. + \log \left| \frac{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1} - \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1} + \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}} \frac{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} + \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1}}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} - \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \frac{1}{z_0} - 1}}} \right| \right] \quad (54)$$

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# Appendix

## Interaction of the Jet with the Surrounding Air

The equation for the jet requires

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr}(rh) = \frac{u_0}{u_2} g(r)$$

$g(r)$  actually is a constant  $g$  specified by  $g(r_0)$  at the exit. Thus

$$h(r) = \frac{u_0}{u_2} g r \quad (55)$$

Therefore if  $R$  is the radius of the jet, then at the boundary of the jet

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{u'}{u_2} &= \beta \left( \frac{R}{r_0} \right) g \\ \frac{p'}{p_2} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } r=R \quad (56)$$

Outside of the jet, the conditions of the surrounding air is denoted by the subscript 0. The disturbed motion there is potential with the potential  $\phi(x, r, t)$ . The differential equation is

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{a_0^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} \quad (57)$$

In view of Eqs. (16) to (18),

$$\phi(x, r, t) = W(r) \cos \omega(t - \frac{x}{a_0} + \alpha) \quad (58)$$

Then the equation for  $W$  is

$$\frac{d^2 W}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{dW}{dr} + \left[ \left( \frac{\omega}{a_0} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{u_2} \right)^2 \right] W = 0$$

$$\text{Thus } W = C J_0 \left( \sqrt{\left( \frac{\omega}{a_0} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{u_2} \right)^2} r \right) + D Y_0 \left( \sqrt{\left( \frac{\omega}{a_0} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\omega}{u_2} \right)^2} r \right) \quad (59)$$

(12)

Where  $C$  and  $L$  are constants to be determined by the conditions expressed in  $E_2$  (5b). Therefore although there is no pressure oscillation in the jet, the surrounding air does have pressure oscillation at all  $r$ , except  $r=h$ .

## 3.3

## Servo - Stabilization of Combustion in Rocket Motors

## 火箭发动机燃烧室的伺服稳定

这是作者发表于1952年的“Servo - Stabilization of Combustion in Rocket Motors”（火箭发动机燃烧室的伺服稳定）一文的原始演算稿，共有18页。

当时已有不少学者，对使用液体推进剂的火箭发动机中的不稳定燃烧现象作出了理论解释，把这一现象看成是，由推进剂的馈送机构和燃烧室所组成的耦合系统失去了稳定性。这里的关键因素在于，从注入推进剂的瞬刻到推进剂燃烧的瞬刻之间，存在着一个时间滞后（简称时滞）。L. Crocco (1951) 曾经分析过这类具有时滞的燃烧稳定性问题，在分析中他假设时滞不受燃烧室压力的影响。

作者想到，为了使火箭发动机的燃烧稳定进行，可以采用反馈控制的方法，即：在不改变推进剂的馈送机构和发动机本身设计的前提下，可以在燃烧室喷嘴前面设置一个由伺服机构控制的容器。当测压仪器测量到了燃烧室压力以后，把测量结果通过一个放大器，变成为伺服机构的输入信号，从而反馈控制推进剂喷入燃烧室的供给速率。考虑到设计时并不掌握有关时滞的确切知识，必须设法做到使系统无条件稳定。也就是说，对于任何一个时滞值，系统都应当是稳定的。为此，作者做了这样一个有时滞的燃烧系统的稳定性分析的研究。

作者采用了萨奇图（Satche diagram）的方法，来讨论时滞可随燃烧室压力变化的更为一般的情况。研究的结果说明伺服稳定方法确实有效。







$$\begin{aligned}
 & - \left[ \frac{1}{T} + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + E \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + P \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right] - \mu \\
 & = \left[ \frac{1}{T} + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + E \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right] \\
 & \quad + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$- \left[ \frac{1}{T} + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) \right] - \mu$$

$$- \left[ \frac{1}{T} + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left[ P \left( 1 + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$- \left[ \frac{1}{T} + \frac{L}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} + \frac{d^2}{d_2^2} \right) \right] = \mu$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$F(6)$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(k) e^{ikx} dk$$

$$\frac{1}{2} + (1-n) \left[ \frac{E_1}{2} \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{E_1}{2} (1 - \dots) + \left( \frac{P_{12}}{a} E + \dots \right) \frac{1}{b} + (1 - \frac{P_{12}}{a}) \right]$$

$$- \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \psi = \lambda \psi$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & - \frac{F(b)}{n \frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E(n+P) + nJ \right) \beta + \left( n \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) + P \right) } \\
 & + [b + (1-n)] \frac{\frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E + J \right) \beta + \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right)}{n \frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E(n+P) + nJ \right) \beta + \left( n \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) + P \right)} = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

$$e^{-fb} [1 - F(b)] - G(b) = 0$$

$$F(b) = - \frac{F(b) \left( \frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \frac{E^2}{2} \beta^2 + J\beta + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right)}{n \frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E(n+P) + nJ \right) \beta + \left( n \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) + P \right)}$$

$$G(b) = - [b + (1-n)] \frac{\frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E + J \right) \beta + \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right)}{n \frac{E^2}{4} \beta^2 + \frac{E^2}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) \beta^2 + \left( \frac{P+J}{\alpha} E(n+P) + nJ \right) \beta + \left( n \left( 1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} \right) + P \right)}$$

$$\text{When } b=0,$$

$$G(0) = - \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{1 + \frac{P}{\alpha}}{1 + \frac{P+J}{\alpha} + \frac{J}{n}}$$

$$\text{When } b \rightarrow \infty$$

$$G(\infty) = - \left[ b + (1-n) \right] \frac{1}{n} \left[ 1 - \frac{J}{n} \frac{P}{\beta} \right]$$

$$= - \frac{1}{n} \left[ b + (1-n) - \frac{J}{n} \frac{P}{\beta} \right]$$

$$= - \left[ \frac{b}{n} + \left( \frac{1-n}{n} - \frac{J}{n} \frac{P}{\beta} \right) \right]$$

$$P = \frac{F}{A} \quad J = \frac{L \bar{F}}{A} \quad E = \frac{J \cdot F}{A} \quad \frac{10}{11}$$

( ~ 3/2 )                      ( ~ 4 ? )                      ( 0.25 )

$n = 1/2$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 \frac{L}{E} \frac{F}{A} \quad \dots \quad = 2 \pi^2 \frac{L}{E} \frac{F}{A}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 \frac{L}{E} \frac{F}{A} \quad \dots \quad \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 \frac{L}{E} \frac{F}{A}$$

$$= 4 \frac{A \bar{F}}{E} \frac{L}{t} \frac{L/2}{v}$$

$$= 4 \frac{100}{10 \times 10^6} \times 10 \frac{10}{10 \times 10^6}$$

$$= \frac{4}{10 \times 1} = \underline{\underline{0.4}}$$

$$= \frac{(4+\frac{1}{2})(\beta^2 + \frac{1}{2}\beta^3 + 4\beta + 1)}{(4-\frac{1}{2})(\beta^2 + \frac{1}{2}\beta^3 + 4\beta + 1)} = -1$$

$$f_2(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(2+2i\omega)(2-i\omega) + i\omega(4-2\omega)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-\omega^2)(1+i\omega)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-\omega^2)(1+i\omega)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$f_2(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-2\omega^2)(2-i\omega^2) + \omega^2(4-\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-2\omega^2)(2-i\omega^2) + \omega^2(4-\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$f_2(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-2\omega^2)(2-i\omega^2) + \omega^2(4-\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-2\omega^2)(2-i\omega^2) + \omega^2(4-\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}{(4-2\omega^2) + i\omega(4-\omega^2)}$$

2

Table 1										Table 2									
$x$	$y$	$z$	$u$	$v$	$w$	$t$	$s$	$r$	$q$	$p$	$m$	$n$	$o$	$k$	$j$	$i$	$h$	$g$	$f$
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100

$$F_1(p) = \frac{1}{p^2 + 4}$$

$$\text{Then } F_1(p) = + \frac{p}{16} \frac{(p^2 + 4)}{\frac{1}{2} p^2 + p^2 + 2p + 2}$$

$$= + \frac{p}{8} \frac{p^2 + 4}{p^2 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4}$$

$$1 - F_1(p) = \frac{8p^3 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4}{8(p^2 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4)}$$

$$F_2(p) = \frac{1}{p^2 + 4} = \frac{1}{p^2 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4} \cdot \frac{(p^2 + 4)}{(p^2 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(2p^2 + 4)(2p^2 + 4p + 4)}{8p^3 + 2p^2 + 4p + 4}$$

$$F_2'(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(1 + 2i\omega)(1 - 2i\omega) + i\omega(2 - 2i\omega)}{(4 - 9\omega^2) + i\omega(32 - 8\omega^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(2 - i\omega^2) - 2i\omega(2 - 2i\omega^2) + i\omega(2 - 2i\omega^2) + 2(2 - i\omega^2)}{(4 - 9\omega^2) + i\omega(32 - 8\omega^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(2 - i\omega^2 + 4i\omega^2) + i\omega(12 - 4i\omega^2) + i\omega(12 - 4i\omega^2)}{(4 - 9\omega^2) + i\omega(32 - 8\omega^2)}$$

$$F_2''(i\omega) = -\frac{2(-i\omega + 4i\omega^3)/4 + i\omega^2(12 - 4i\omega^2)(32 - 8i\omega^2)}{4(4 - 9\omega^2) + i\omega^2(32 - 8\omega^2)}$$

$$F_2'''(i\omega) = -\frac{(-i\omega + 4i\omega^3)/4 - i\omega^2(12 - 4i\omega^2)(32 - 8i\omega^2)}{4(4 - 9\omega^2) + i\omega^2(32 - 8\omega^2)}$$



	$\frac{1}{4} - 9.5^2$	$\frac{1}{2} - 8.5^2$	$\frac{3}{4} - 7.5^2$	$\frac{1}{2} - 6.5^2$	$\frac{1}{4} - 5.5^2$	$\frac{1}{4} - 4.5^2$	$\frac{1}{4} - 3.5^2$	$\frac{1}{4} - 2.5^2$
0.4	0.16	0.56	3.72	-0.6176	11.36	29.3871		
0.8	0.64	-1.76	24.88	-7.2416	9.44	116.3799		
1.2	1.44	-8.96	20.48	-14.1856	6.24	171.0153	-1.8188	-1.6458
1.6	2.56	-13.64	16.32	-15.9136	4.16	177.0202	-1.9880	-1.6104
2.0	4.00	-19.04	11.52	-15.2056	2.76	175.5651	-1.9555	-1.3015
2.4	5.76	-24.51	8.88	-13.7216	0.44	178.0823	-1.7593	-1.0707
2.8	7.84	-29.69	3.12	-7.4416	-2.44	211.7053	-0.8647	-0.8207
3.2	10.24	-32.00	0	-2	-4	256	-0.5500	-1
3.6	12.96	-37.84	-4.12	36.7904	-11.04	257.1412	+1.0012	
4.0	16.00	-46.56	-12.12	114.5824	-17.28			
4.4	19.36	-48.16	-14.52	147.3804	-28.76			
4.8	23.04	-112.64	-71.52	453.5264	-37.84			
5.2	27.04	-140	76	754				
5.6	31.36	-170.24	-121.28	72.16				
6.0	36.00	-212.36	-172.16	1733.6864	-42.16			
6.4	40.96	-244	-244	2446.9664				

Let  $x = \frac{f_1}{f_2}$

$$y = -\frac{f_1^2}{f_2^2} = -\frac{f_1^2}{f_2^2}$$

Then  $y = -\frac{f_1^2}{f_2^2} = -\frac{f_1^2}{f_2^2}$

$$\text{Now } f_2(f) = -2 \frac{(f + \frac{1}{2})(1 + \frac{1}{2}f)}{(1 + 2\frac{1}{2}f)} = -2[f + 1 \dots]$$

$$\text{Also } \frac{K f_1}{f_2} = 2, \quad \frac{f_1}{f_2} = 1$$

$$\text{Let } f_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ then } f_2 = 2f_1, \text{ or } f_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \dots$$

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ then } f_2 = 2f_1$$

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ then } f_2 = 2f_1$$

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$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ then } f_2 = 2f_1$$

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ then } f_2 = 2f_1$$



$$f_2'(s) = -2 \frac{(3s+1)s^2}{(s^2+1)^3}$$

$$f_2'(i\omega) = -2 \frac{(3+i\omega)(3-i\omega)}{(1-\omega^2)^3} = -2 \frac{9-\omega^2}{(1-\omega^2)^3}$$

$$= -2 \frac{[1(1-\omega^2)+5\omega^2]+i\omega[3(1-\omega^2)]}{(1-\omega^2)^3}$$

$$= -2 \frac{16-\omega^2}{16+\omega^2} - 2i\omega \frac{24+\omega^2}{16+\omega^2}$$

$$\Re f_2'(i\omega) = -2 \frac{16-\omega^2}{16+\omega^2} \quad ; \quad \Im f_2'(i\omega) = -2\omega \frac{24+\omega^2}{16+\omega^2}$$

1.2

$x$	$y$	$z$	$u$	$v$
0	0	0	0	0
1.2	0.84	21.64	-1.9301	-1.0760
1.4	1.96	37.44	-1.8642	-1.6328
1.6	3.24	57.76	-1.7935	-2.1949
1.8	4.84	82.84	-1.7144	-2.7641
2.0	6.76	112.00	-1.6284	-3.3399
2.2	8.84	145.24	-1.5360	-3.9207
2.4	11.04	182.56	-1.4383	-4.5062
2.6	13.36	222.96	-1.3362	-5.0963
2.8	15.84	267.44	-1.2292	-5.6905
3.0	18.40	316.00	-1.1181	-6.2888
3.2	21.04	368.64	-1.0033	-6.8913
3.4	23.76	425.36	-0.8752	-7.4980
3.6	26.56	486.16	-0.7343	-8.1089
3.8	29.44	551.04	-0.5812	-8.7240
4.0	32.40	620.00	-0.4167	-9.3433
4.2	35.44	693.04	-0.2412	-9.9668
4.4	38.56	770.16	-0.0552	-10.5943
4.6	41.76	851.36	0.1412	-11.2258
4.8	45.04	936.64	0.3292	-11.8613
5.0	48.40	1026.00	0.5092	-12.5008
5.2	51.84	1119.44	0.6812	-13.1443
5.4	55.36	1216.96	0.8452	-13.7918
5.6	58.96	1318.56	1.0012	-14.4433
5.8	62.64	1424.24	1.1492	-15.0988
6.0	66.40	1534.00	1.2892	-15.7583
6.2	70.24	1647.84	1.4212	-16.4218
6.4	74.16	1765.76	1.5452	-17.0893
6.6	78.16	1887.76	1.6612	-17.7608
6.8	82.24	2013.84	1.7692	-18.4363
7.0	86.40	2144.00	1.8692	-19.1158
7.2	90.64	2278.24	1.9612	-19.7993
7.4	94.96	2416.56	2.0452	-20.4868
7.6	99.36	2558.96	2.1212	-21.1783
7.8	103.84	2705.44	2.1892	-21.8738
8.0	108.40	2856.00	2.2492	-22.5733
8.2	113.04	3010.64	2.3012	-23.2768
8.4	117.76	3169.36	2.3452	-23.9843
8.6	122.56	3332.16	2.3812	-24.6958
8.8	127.44	3499.04	2.4092	-25.4113
9.0	132.40	3670.00	2.4292	-26.1308
9.2	137.44	3845.04	2.4412	-26.8543
9.4	142.56	4024.16	2.4452	-27.5818
9.6	147.76	4207.36	2.4412	-28.3133
9.8	153.04	4394.64	2.4292	-29.0488
10.0	158.40	4586.00	2.4092	-29.7883

例 2

$$n = \frac{1}{2}, \quad p = \frac{1}{2}, \quad f = 4, \quad E = \frac{1}{4}, \quad \alpha = 1$$

$$f_2(p) = -\left(p + \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{p^2 + \frac{1}{2}p^4 + \frac{1}{2}p + 3}{\frac{1}{2}p^3 + \frac{1}{2}p^2 + 3p + 3}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(2p^2 + 1)(2p^3 + 3p^2 + 3p + 3)}{p^3 + 3p^2 + 6p + 6}$$

$$f_2(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(1+2i\omega)\{ (4-3\omega^2) + i\omega(7-2\omega^2) \}}{(4-3\omega^2) + i\omega(6-\omega^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\{ (4-3\omega^2) - 2i\omega(7-2\omega^2) \} + i\omega \{ (7-2\omega^2) + 2(4-3\omega^2) \}}{(4-3\omega^2) + i\omega(6-\omega^2)}$$

$$\frac{(4-3\omega^2)^2 + \omega^2(4-\omega^2)^2}{(4-3\omega^2)^2 + \omega^2(6-\omega^2)^2}$$

$$f_2^R(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(4-2i\omega^2 + 2i\omega^2)(4-2i\omega^2) + \omega^2(2(7-2\omega^2) + 2(4-3\omega^2))}{(4-3\omega^2)^2 + \omega^2(6-\omega^2)^2}$$

$$f_2^I(i\omega) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(2(7-2\omega^2) + 2(4-3\omega^2)) - (4-2i\omega^2 + 2i\omega^2)\omega^2(4-\omega^2)}{(4-3\omega^2)^2 + \omega^2(6-\omega^2)^2}$$

5.4	0.16	5.52	5.84	2.7424	19.72	71.8546	-0.6671	1.15
0.8	0.14	4.08	5.36	-5.8016	15.88	70.0666	-0.4396	1.45
1.2	1.04	1.68	4.56	-15.9456	9.48	65.5304	-0.5411	1.22
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1.6	2.56	-1.68	3.44	-21.5456	0.52	16.2328	-0.5157	1.12
1.7	2.89	-2.67	3.11	-21.2024	-2.12	70.1626	-0.5440	1.24
7	2.61	-4.83	2.37	-17.6816	-7.88	87.7992	-0.7871	1.1
2.0	4	-6	2	-14	-11	104	-0.8385	1.27
3.2	4.84	-8.52	1.16	-1.7276	-17.72	158.2062	0.5245	1.2
2.4	5.76	-11.24	0.24	+12.7504	-25.08	255.1404	0.9207	1.1
2.8	7.84	-12.52	-1.84	87.2214	-41.72	111.9870	1.3887	1.22
3.2	10.24	-14.72	-4.24	240.3914	-60.92	1570.3210	1.6071	1.1
3.6	12.96	-22.88	-6.76	425.6114	-82.68	3077.7568	1.7099	1.1
4.0	16	-42	-10	604	-107	6728	1.7578	1.27
4.4	19.36	-52.08	-13.24	1098.6724	-133.88	12225.7702	1.8214	1.1
4.8	23.04	-63.12	-17.04	1655.5044	-163.32	21347.1514	1.8618	1.1

$$F_1 = \frac{f_1}{f_2} = \frac{f_1 \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}{(f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2') \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}$$

$$\frac{(f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2') \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}{(f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2') \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}$$

$$F_1 = \frac{f_1}{f_2} = \frac{f_1 \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}{(f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2') \cdot (f_2' + 3f_2' + 4f_2' + f_2')}$$

$$= \frac{f_1^5 + 3f_1^4 + 6f_1^3 + 6f_1^2 + 5f_1 + 15f_1^2 + 24f_1^3 + 30f_1^4 + 6f_1^5 + 18f_1^4 + 36f_1^3 + 24f_1^2 + 6f_1^3 + 27f_1^2 + 54f_1 + 66f_1 + 24}{f_1^5 + 3f_1^4 + 6f_1^3 + 6f_1^2 + 5f_1 + 15f_1^2 + 24f_1^3 + 30f_1^4 + 6f_1^5 + 18f_1^4 + 36f_1^3 + 24f_1^2 + 6f_1^3 + 27f_1^2 + 54f_1 + 66f_1 + 24}$$

$$(f_1 + \frac{1}{2})(f_1 + 6)(f_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}f_1 + \frac{1}{2}f_1 + 3) = (f_1^2 + \frac{13}{2}f_1 + 3)(f_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}f_1 + \frac{1}{2}f_1 + 3)$$

$$= f_1^4 + \frac{1}{2}f_1^3 + \frac{1}{2}f_1^3 + 3f_1^2 + \frac{13}{2}f_1^2 + \frac{37}{2}f_1^2 + \frac{11}{2}f_1^2 + \frac{37}{2}f_1 + 3f_1 + \frac{11}{2}f_1 + 9$$

$$f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + (4 + 9 + 3 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1^2 + (3 + 27 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + (17 + \frac{1}{2}) + (19 + \frac{1}{2} + 13 + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + 9$$

$$F_1 = \frac{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + (4 + 9 + 3 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1^2 + (3 + 27 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + (17 + \frac{1}{2}) + (19 + \frac{1}{2} + 13 + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + 9}{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + (4 + 9 + 3 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1^2 + (3 + 27 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + (17 + \frac{1}{2}) + (19 + \frac{1}{2} + 13 + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + 9}$$

$$= \frac{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + (4 + 9 + 3 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1^2 + (3 + 27 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + (17 + \frac{1}{2}) + (19 + \frac{1}{2} + 13 + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + 9}{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + (4 + 9 + 3 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1^2 + (3 + 27 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + (17 + \frac{1}{2}) + (19 + \frac{1}{2} + 13 + \frac{1}{2})f_1 + 9}$$

$$F_1 = \frac{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + 17f_1^2 + 22f_1 + 27}{f_1^4 + 8f_1^3 + 17f_1^2 + 22f_1 + 27}$$



$$h_1'(\beta) = 0.5\beta + 0.5$$

$$h_1'(-0.55) = -0.0639$$

$$h_1'(\beta) = 0.5\beta + 0.5$$

$$h_1'(-0.55) = -0.0639$$

$$h_2'(\beta) = 0$$

$$h_2(\beta) = (\beta + 0.5232)(\beta^2 + 0.6448\beta + 0.3750)$$

$$h_2'(\beta) = 9.75\beta^2 + 17.25\beta + 33\beta + 27$$

$$h_2'(\beta) = 29.25\beta^2 + 34.5\beta + 33$$

$$h_2'(-1.0) = 1.5, \quad h_2'(-1) = 27.75$$

$$h_2'(-1.0537) = -0.0264, \quad h_2'(-1.0537) = 29.12$$

$$h_2'(-1.0528) = 0$$

$$h_2(\beta) = (\beta + 1.0528)(9.75\beta^2 + 6.952\beta + 25.6460)$$

$$= 9.75(\beta + 1.0528)(\beta^2 + 0.7164\beta + 2.6304)$$

$$h_2(\beta) = 9.75 \frac{(\beta + 1.0528)(\beta^2 + 0.7164\beta + 2.6304)}{\beta^2 + 0.7164\beta + 2.6304}$$

### 3.4

#### Engineering Cybernetics

#### 工程控制论

这是作者在 1953 年底在美国加州理工学院开设“工程控制论”一课的讲义基础上所做的修改稿的一部分，在这修改的基础上形成了 1954 年出版的《Engineering Cybernetics》（工程控制论）一书。这里选印了修改稿中的 13 页，反映作者一丝不苟的精神。

1949 年 N. Wiener（维纳）发表了《控制论》一书，其英文书名是《Cybernetics or Control and Communication in the Animal and the Machine》，开创了控制论这样一门新的学科。从 Wiener 所起的书名便可以看出，控制论是关于既是机器中又是动物中的控制和通讯理论的一门科学，研究的主要问题是—个系统的各个不同部分之间的相互作用的定性性质以及整个系统的运动状态。

基于作者在火箭技术方面的丰富经验，他迅速认识到 Wiener 所创控制论的重要性，很快便运用控制论的原理解决了一批喷气技术中的问题，诸如：火箭喷管的传递函数、远程火箭的自动导航以及火箭发动机燃烧的伺服稳定等问题。作者意识到，不仅在火箭技术的领域内，而且在整个工程技术的范围内，几乎到处存在着被控制的系统或被操纵的系统；而且事实上有关的系统控制的技术已经有了多方面的发展，因此很有必要用一种统观全局的方法，来充分了解和发挥上述导航技术和控制技术等新技术的潜在力量，以更广阔的眼界用更系统的方法来观察有关的问题，不仅可以得到解决旧问题的更有效的新方法，并且可以揭示新的以前没有看到过的前景。于是，作者提出了一门新的技术科学——工程控制论。作者首先在 1953 年底在美国加州理工学院开设了“工程控制论”一课，接着于 1954 年出版了《Engineering Cybernetics》（工程控制论）一书。这是一门技术科学，它和控制论的不同之处在于，工程控制论旨在讨论和研究，在工程中实现自动控制与自动调节的理论以及自动控制与调节系统的结构原理。该书的出版在世界科技界引起广泛注意，当即被译成多种文字发行。有趣的是，俄文版的发行，还为平息原苏联对《控制论》创始人 N. Wiener 的批判起到了积极的作用。

## Chapter VIII

Linear Systems with Time Lag

In this chapter we shall introduce another new element into our linear systems with constant coefficients: the time lag. By time lag, we mean that the relation between the different variables of the system cannot be expressed as a relation of these variables all taken at some time instant, but on the contrary, the relation involves variables some taken at the time instant, and some taken at an earlier instant. Those taken at the instant then lag by the interval behind the variables taken at the instant. This time lag is this different from the characteristic time constant of a first order linear system introduced in Section 3.1. Time lag systems are represented by differential-difference equations of constant coefficients and are more complex than the linear systems studied previously which are represented by differential equations. Systems with time lag were studied by many investigators; for instance, A. Callander, D. Hartree, and A. Porter\* and E. Minorsky.\*\* Our interest here is, however, somewhat more restricted. We wish to know: How can we analyze the performance of a feedback servomechanism if there is a characteristic time lag in the system? We wish, specifically, to modify the method of Nyquist of Section 4.3, to time lag systems.

We shall develop the theory by treating a particular example of such a system; the example of stabilizing the combustion in a rocket motor by feedback control. The problem of combustion instability in rocket motors was treated by many authors, the following analysis of combustion lag time originates from the work of L. Crocco.\*\*\* For simplicity of calculation,\*\*\*\* we shall consider only the case of so-called low frequency oscillation in a rocket motor using single liquid propellant.

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\* A. Callander, D. Hartree and A. Porter, Phil. Trans. Royal Society of London (A), 235:415-444 (1935).

\*\* E. Minorsky, J. Appl. Mechanics (ASME) 1:67-71 (1942).

\*\*\* L. Crocco, J. American Rocket Society, 21: 163-178 (1951).

\*\*\*\* The following discussion is based upon a paper in J. American Rocket Society, 22:256-262 (1952).

## Chapter IX

Linear Systems with Stationary Random Input.

In the previous chapters, the inputs to a system are considered to be definitely specified functions of time. However, there are many engineering problems for linear systems with constant coefficients where the inputs cannot be so definitely described. An example of such engineering problem is the problem of the motion and the stresses induced in the structure of an airplane wing in turbulent air stream. Here the input can be considered to be the time varying air-flow pattern. But the airflow pattern cannot be described as a definite function of time, but has to be recognized as a random function of time, specified by certain statistical characteristics. It is then evident, the output of the system, the stresses in this case, must be also a random function and can be described also only in statistical terms. The first objective of this chapter is then to find a convenient method of calculating the statistical properties of the output from the specified statistical properties of the input. This forms an easy extension of the early investigations by P. Langevin of the Brownian motion.

Another example of random input is the so-called noise in control signals. The noise is introduced by the disturbances and the fluctuations beyond the control of the designer. The problem of noise is a proper of much research in connection with communications engineering. There the central question is how to design the system so that the effects of the unavoidable noise can be minimized and the useful information of the signal is not destroyed. We shall discuss this particular problem of noise filtering in Chapter 16. The problem of this chapter is, however, somewhat different. In our problem, the random output is the only output of the system. Our purpose in the design of the system, particularly the design of the feedback servomechanism, is to obtain with a given input an output of the desired statistical characteristics. We shall see that the method of transfer function developed in the previous chapters remain useful in the present task.

9.1 Statistical Description of a Random Function

Let us consider a system which generates a random function. Now to formulate the concept of a statistical description of such a random

#### 4.1, Linear Systems of Constant Coefficients

Let us consider the simplest system - a first order system.

That is, the differential equation of the system is a first order linear differential equation of constant coefficients. If the system is assumed to be free and is not subjected to forcing function, then the differential equation can be written as

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + ky = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

$k$  may be called the spring constant and is real. When there is no variation of  $y$  with respect to time,  $dy/dt$  vanishes and then Eq. (1.1) requires  $y=0$ . Therefore the stationary state or the equilibrium state of the system corresponds to  $y=0$ .

The solution of Eq. (1.1) is

$$y = y_0 e^{-kt} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $y_0$  is the initial value of  $y$  or

$$y(0) = y_0 \quad (1.3)$$

$y_0$  is thus the initial disturbance of the system from the equilibrium state. The behavior of the system for  $t > 0$  is illustrated in Fig. 1.1 for both positive  $k$  and for negative  $k$ . It is seen that for  $k > 0$ , the magnitude of  $y$  decreases with time. Then as time increases indefinitely,  $y \rightarrow 0$ . Therefore

Fig. 1.1

for  $\ell > 0$ , the disturbance of the system will eventually disappear. The system can then be said to be stable. When  $\ell < 0$ , the disturbed motion of the system increases with time and eventually the disturbance will become very large no matter how small the initial displacement is, and will never return to the equilibrium state once disturbed. Such systems are thus unstable.

For systems of higher order, the differential equation will have higher derivatives. The  $n$ -th order system has the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + \dots + a_n y = 0 \quad (1.4)$$

For a physical system, the coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are real. Then the solution of Eq. (1.4) can be written as

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i e^{j\beta_i t} \sin(\beta_i t + \phi_i) \quad (1.5)$$

where  $\alpha_i$ ,  $\beta_i$  are real and are related to the coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  and  $\phi_i$  are the phase angles. The motion of the system is thus only stable if all  $\alpha_i$ 's are negative. If one of them is positive, the disturbance will eventually diverge, and the system is thus unstable.

From the above examples it is seen that the crucial question to ask about the behavior of a linear system of constant coefficients is the question of stability. Needless to say, the usual aim of an engineering design is stability. The question of stability can be answered, however, once the coefficients of the differential equation are specified. In case of the simple first order system specified by Eq. (1.1), the only information that matters is the sign of the coefficient  $\ell$ .

## 12. Linear System with Variable Coefficients

If there is a variable parameter in the system under study, the stationary or the equilibrium state of the system can be changed by changing this parameter. It is natural then to expect the coefficients of the linear differential equation describing the system to be also functions of this parameter. For instance, the aerodynamic forces acting on an aircraft are functions of the speed of the aircraft. If the speed of the

## Chapter II

### Method of Laplace Transform

For linear differential equations with constant coefficients and with time  $t$  as the independent variable, the method of Laplace transform is particularly useful in finding the solution. Of course, the problem can be solved by a number of other methods; but the method of Laplace transform appeals specially to the engineering scientists in that it reduces all problems to a uniform basis. The procedure of solution is here standardised and a general approach is possible. The theory and properties of Laplace transform is discussed in many texts.\* It is not the purpose of the present chapter to do this. The purpose here is rather to give a summary of results which are useful to our discussion in the subsequent chapters for easy reference. For details and proofs, the reader should consult the texts cited.

#### 2.1 Laplace Transform and Inversion Formula

If  $y(t)$  is a function of time variable  $t$  defined for  $t > 0$  then the Laplace transform  $Y(s)$  of  $y(t)$  is defined as\*\*

$$Y(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-st} y(t) dt \quad (2.1)$$

where  $s$  is a complex variable having a positive real part,  $\Re > 0$ . For other values of  $s$ , the function  $Y(s)$  is defined by the analytic continuation. The dimension of  $Y(s)$  is the dimension of  $y$  multiplied by time.

When  $Y(s)$  is known, the original function for which  $Y(s)$  is the Laplace transform can be obtained in all cases by the inversion Formula:

\* See for instance, H. S. Carslaw and J. C. Jaeger "Operational Methods in Applied Mathematics", Oxford, (1941); or R. V. Churchill, "Modern Operational Methods in Engineering", McGraw Hill, (1944).

For more complete theory, one should consult G. Doetsch, "Theorie und Anwendung der Laplace-Transformation", J. Springer, Berlin (1937); or D. V. Widder, "The Laplace Transform", Princeton, (1946).

\*\* We shall use throughout capital alphabet to denote the Laplace transform of quantities denoted by a lower case alphabet.

3-5

Therefore the error signal vanishes as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .

Consider now another example of the input: Let the input be sinusoidal,

$$x(t) = x_m e^{i\omega t}$$

where  $x_m$  is the amplitude and  $\omega$  is the frequency. Then

$$X(s) = \frac{x_m}{s - i\omega} \quad (3.12)$$

The output due to the initial condition is the same as before. The output due to input is given by

$$Y(s) = x_m \frac{1}{(s - i\omega)(\tau_p s + 1)} = \frac{x_m}{1 + i\omega\tau_p} \left[ -\frac{1}{s + \frac{1}{\tau_p}} + \frac{1}{s - i\omega} \right]$$

Therefore according to our dictionary, the output  $y(t)$  is

$$y(t) = -\frac{x_m}{1 + i\omega\tau_p} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_p}} + \frac{x_m}{1 + i\omega\tau_p} e^{i\omega t} \quad e^{-t/\tau_p}$$

The first term is a pure subsidence and the second term is the steady state output. Thus

$$\left[ y(t) \right]_{\text{steady}} / x(t) = \frac{1}{1 + i\omega\tau_p} = F(i\omega) \quad \text{see Chap. 1}$$

This is in full agreement with our general result given in Eq. (2.16).

Here

$$\frac{1}{1 + i\omega\tau_p} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \omega^2\tau_p^2}} e^{-i \tan^{-1}(\omega\tau_p)} \quad (3.13)$$

the steady state output can be expressed as

$$\left[ y(t) \right]_{\text{steady}} = \frac{x_m}{\sqrt{1 + \omega^2\tau_p^2}} e^{i[\omega t - \tan^{-1}(\omega\tau_p)]} \quad \checkmark$$

Therefore the amplitude of the steady state output is reduced by the factor  $1/\sqrt{1 + \omega^2\tau_p^2}$  in comparison with the input, and the phase of the output lags behind the input by the amount  $\tan^{-1}(\omega\tau_p)$ . For low



the aileron deflection  $\delta$ . The equation for the roll angle  $\varphi$  is thus

Now let  $p = \frac{d\varphi}{dt}$  be roll speed, then the above equation becomes

$$I \frac{dp}{dt} + L_p p = k \delta$$

If the roll speed is zero at  $t=0$ , then the transformed equation is

$$(Is + L_p) \Phi(s) = k \Delta(s) \quad P \text{ eq.}$$

The transfer function  $F(s)$  is thus

$$\frac{\Phi(s)}{\Delta(s)} = F(s) = \frac{k}{Is + L_p} = \frac{k}{L_p} \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{I}{L_p})s} \quad (3.36)$$

The behavior of the system is determined by the transfer function is thus similar to the cantilever spring with dashpot and the simple lag network. Here the characteristic time  $\tau_c$  is  $I/L_p$ . If the damping is very small, then  $\tau_c \rightarrow \infty$  and the behavior of the system becomes that of the simple integrator.

### 3.4 Second Order Systems

Let us return to the cantilever spring with a dashpot, Fig. 3.1.

Only now we attach a mass  $m$  to the dashpot end. The mass will introduce an inertia force  $m \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}$ , and the equation of motion is now

$$m \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} + c \frac{dy}{dt} + ky = kx$$

with the initial conditions

$$\left. \begin{aligned} y(0) &= y_0 \\ \left( \frac{dy}{dt} \right)_{t=0} &= \dot{y}_0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3.37)$$

The differential equation of motion can be rewritten in more convenient form by introducing the following parameters:

with  $G(s)$  given. The method of Evans determines such roots as functions of the gain  $K$  and is thus called the root-locus method. When this is done, any set of specifications on the roots gives a proper choice of the magnitude of  $K$ . This method then goes much beyond the mere satisfaction of criterion a) of Section 2, but actually solves the design problem for all three criteria stated in that section.

Now let  $G(s)$  be specified by its zeros  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m$  and its poles  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$ . Then from the definition of gain given by Eqs. (3.16), (3.21), and (3.23),

$$G(s) = A \frac{(s-p_1)(s-p_2) \dots (s-p_m)}{(s-q_1)(s-q_2) \dots (s-q_n)} \quad (4.16)$$

where  $A$  is a constant real and positive for all physical systems.

$$A = \frac{(-p_1)(-p_2) \dots (-p_m)}{(-q_1)(-q_2) \dots (-q_n)} \quad \text{or and}$$

For physical systems, the polynomials in the numerator and the denominator of  $G(s)$  has real coefficients. Then the  $p$ 's are either real or form complex conjugate pairs. Similarly the  $q$ 's are either real or form complex conjugate pairs.

Therefore  $A$  is always real. In engineering systems, usually things are so arranged as to make  $A$  not only real but also positive. Hereafter then, we shall consider  $A$  to be real and positive. Generally the denominator of  $G(s)$  is of equal or higher order than that of the numerator, i.e.,  $n \geq m$ . Let us express each of the factors in Eq. (4.16) in vector form:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} s-p_1 &= p_1 e^{i\theta_1} \\ s-p_2 &= p_2 e^{i\theta_2} \\ &\dots \dots \dots \\ &= i\omega \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.17)$$

Since  $A$  is real and positive,

hence, we can write Eq. (4.19)

$$G(s) = R e^{i\theta} \quad (4.20)$$

where

$$R = A(p_1 p_2 \cdots p_m / q_1 q_2 \cdots q_n) \quad (4.21)$$

and

$$\theta = (\phi_1 + \phi_2 + \cdots + \phi_m) - (\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \cdots + \theta_n) \quad (4.22)$$

Since  $p$ 's and  $q$ 's are magnitudes of vectors defined by Eqs. (4.18) and (4.19), they are positive. Therefore  $R$  is positive. The basic equation for the roots of inverse system transfer function, Eq. (4.15), is thus

$$\frac{1}{K R} e^{-i\theta} = -1$$

Therefore to satisfy this equation, we must have

$$K R = 1 \quad (4.23)$$

and

$$\theta = \pm \pi \quad (4.24)$$

The method of Evans consists of two steps: The first step is to determine all  $s$  that satisfy the appropriate angle condition of Eq. (4.24). Then knowing such root-locus, we can compute  $R$  and hence  $K$ , by Eq. (4.23), for each point on the root-locus. Evans has developed a number of useful rules for plotting the root-locus. We shall explain these rules presently.

Rule 1 For  $K=0$ , Eq. (4.15) shows that  $G(s) \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus for  $K=0$ , the roots of  $1/F(s)$  are poles of  $G(s)$ , or the root-locus starts at the

control servomechanisms in which the oscillation is supplied by an independent generator.

An elementary precaution to be observed, in order that the curve, which is constrained to pass through the point  $-2$ , shall remain in the neighborhood of the point  $-1$ , is that the curve should intersect the real axis, at the point  $-1$ , periodically. This implies that the vector  $e^{j\omega t} F(j\omega)$  should be varying slowly in amplitude, and rapidly in angle, the frequency at which the system oscillates.

### 3.6 General Oscillating Control Servomechanism

A relay ~~servomechanism~~ is a non-linear device. But by making the signal with a sinusoidal oscillation of high frequency and large amplitude, the output is made to be linear with respect to the signal. Thus the essential concept of oscillating control servomechanisms is the linearization of a non-linear system. J. M. Loeb<sup>6</sup> has shown that this concept is applicable to any non-linear system, and he calls this method the general linearising process for non-linear control systems. We shall call the resulting servomechanism the general oscillating control servomechanism.

Let us consider a general function  $y(x)$  where  $y$  is the output and  $x$  is the input. If instead of the variable  $x$ , we substitute the sum  $x+\epsilon$  where  $\epsilon$  is much smaller than  $x$ . Then if the function  $y(x)$  is regular, we can expand  $y(x+\epsilon)$  into a Taylor series as

$$y(x+\epsilon) = y(x) + \epsilon \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right) + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \left( \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right) + \dots \quad (6-15)$$

We now specify the input  $x$  as a periodic function of time  $t$  with the period  $T$ , and  $\epsilon$  as a constant. Then it is clear that  $y(x)$  is also a periodic function of time with the same period  $T$ . Some is true for  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  and  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ . Periodic functions can be expanded into Fourier series; thus if we neglect powers of  $\epsilon$  higher than first we have

$$\begin{aligned} y(x+\epsilon) &\cong a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos n\omega t + b_n \sin n\omega t) \\ &+ \epsilon \left[ \frac{dy}{dx} \right]_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (c_n \cos n\omega t + d_n \sin n\omega t), \end{aligned} \quad (6-16)$$

<sup>6</sup> J. M. Loeb, *Annales des Télécommunications*, 5:65-71 (1950)

$$F_2(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{e^{st}}{1 - e^{t_0}(s-g)} ds$$

We proceed to evaluate the right-hand member of (7.11) by the method of residues.

The integrand has certain poles: the poles of  $F_2(s)$  lying to the left of the path of integration, and other poles, which are the roots of the equation  $1 - e^{t_0}(s-g) = 0$ , lying to the right of the path of integration. It is easily seen that the integration along the line  $\gamma$  in the clockwise direction is equivalent to integration in the clockwise direction along the closed contour formed by that line and the infinite semicircle in the right half plane. Hence the right-hand member of Eq. (7.11) is  $-t_0$  times the sum of the residues of the integrand with respect to the several roots of the equation  $1 - e^{t_0}(s-g) = 0$ .

Let the typical root of the equation be  $s = s_0 + 2\pi i m / t_0$ , where  $m$  is an integer, and the residue of the integrand with respect to that pole is  $-\frac{1}{t_0} \frac{e^{st}}{s - s_0 + 2\pi i m / t_0}$ . Therefore finally

$$F_2^*(s) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{m=+\infty} \frac{1}{t_0} \frac{e^{st}}{s - s_0 + 2\pi i m / t_0} \quad , \quad \operatorname{Re} s > \sigma_0 \quad (7.12)$$

This formula gives considerable insight into the properties of  $F_2^*(s)$ , and it may be useful in making approximate calculations. However, we can easily obtain an exact representation of  $F_2^*(s)$  in finite form.

The function  $F_2(s)$  can be represented as the sum of a finite number of partial fractions, thus:

$$F_2(s) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{s - s_k} \quad (7.13)$$

automatic sensing and measuring control system, i.e., an optimizing system which automatically holds the airplane at the measured optimum operating conditions.

Of course, a skilled human operator controls the performance of a machine on the optimizing principle: He watches the instrument readings of the inputs and outputs of the machine, and then uses his knowledge and experience to decide in what directions should the controls be adjusted. The adjusted inputs bring new output readings which have to be interpreted by the operator to determine whether the optimum operating condition is reached or exceeded. New adjustments of the control will have to be made. The continuous adjustment of input, the sensing process and the reading of the outputs is the feedback. However, manually-controlled optimizing systems are necessarily slow in response, and for complicated systems human skill, no matter how developed, is not sufficient. Automatic optimizing control was conceived by G. S. Draper, Y. T. Li and H. Luning, Jr.<sup>6</sup> Its application to cruise control of airplane was discussed by J. R. Shull.<sup>6a</sup>

## 15.2 Principles of Optimizing Control

The heart of an optimizing control system is the non-linear component which characterizes the optimum operating conditions. For simplicity of discussion, we shall assume that this basic component has a single input and a single output. For the time being, we shall neglect all other time effects and assume that the output is determined only by the input. Since there is an optimum operating point, output as a function of input has a maximum at  $y_0$  and  $x_0$ , as shown in Fig. 15.1. It is convenient to refer the output and the input to the optimum point and put the physical input as  $x - x_0$ , and the physical output as  $y - y_0$ . The optimum point is then the point  $x = y = 0$ . The purpose of an optimizing control is then to search out this optimum point and to keep the

<sup>6</sup> Y. T. Li, *Instruments*, 25: 72-77, 190-193, 228, 324-327, 350-352 (1952). G. S. Draper and Y. T. Li, "Principles of Optimizing Control Systems" and an application to Internal Combustion Engine" ASME Publications (1951).

<sup>6a</sup> J. R. Shull, *Trans. I.R.E. (Electronic Computers)*, Dec. 1952, pp. 47-51.

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(15.26)

Eqs. (15.27) and (15.28) have a first term identical with Eq. (15.1). The additional terms come from the imperfect elements and from the statistical distribution of errors.

With any specified  $\epsilon$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\sigma$ , Eqs. (15.26), (15.27), and (15.28) enable us to compute the distribution function of  $\epsilon$ , the fraction of activated output lines of the complete Scheffer stroke system. We can make this somewhat clearer by reverting to the notation of probability distribution functions. Thus for instance Eq. (15.26) is equivalent to

The probability distribution function of  $\epsilon$ ,  $f(\epsilon; \delta, \sigma)$ , is thus the result of integrating with respect to  $\epsilon$  and  $\delta$  of the joint probability of  $\epsilon$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $\sigma$ . Thus

(15.29)

We shall now show that under proper conditions we can obtain almost perfect performance of the multiplexed Scheffer stroke system by increasing  $\epsilon$ . Consider a given fiducial level  $\alpha$ . Perfect performance means the implication of  $\epsilon$ , or non-activation of output, by  $\delta$ , or the activation of both inputs; the implication of  $\epsilon$ , by either  $\delta$  or  $\sigma$ .

## 3.5

## Analysis of Peak - Holding Optimizing Control

## 保持最高点控制的分析

这是作者发表于1955年的“Analysis of Peak - Holding Optimizing Control”(保持最高点控制的分析)一文的部分手稿,共有12页

对于简单的控制系统来说,系统的性质和特征是事先就知道的。但是,对于较为复杂的系统来说,情况就不同了,这是因为:系统在制造过程中常常产生误差,其形状和性能和早先在实验室中测试的结果不会完全相同;系统在运行过程中也会发生不断的变化,例如遭受磨损和疲劳损伤;而且运行时的环境条件有所改变等。在不完全掌握系统性质和特征的情况下,需要让系统自动寻找最优运转点。C. S. Draper 和李耀滋(1951)等提出了自寻最优点的方法,即在控制系统中引入连续“理解”和连续测量的环节,据此进行连续的调节反馈。

上述的最优控制方法在理论上存在两个基本问题,一是控制系统的惯性或者其他动力学现象对控制性能产生的影响,另一是消除噪声干扰的影响。作者的这篇文章是要解决第一个问题,分析一类噪声干扰影响极小的控制系统,目的在于使系统的输出始终保持极大值,作者将这类控制称为保持最高点的控制(Peak - Holding Optimizing Control)。这里作者假设,系统的动力学影响可以相当准确地用具有时间常数的一阶线性系统近似描述。作者详细地分析了控制原理,并且给出了供设计用的曲线图,对于指定的搜索周期、输入和输出部分的时间常数以及选定的临界指示差值等参数值、曲线图给出有关输入策动速度和搜索损失的结果。

这里选印作者的原始底稿中的12页,其中前8页是有关引言、优化控制的运作原理和问题的数学表述等内容,接着的两页是有关“设计曲线图”部分,而最后两页是反映最重要结果的两张精美制图,即关于输入策动速度 $N$ 和搜索损失 $D$ 的设计曲线。





shall emphasize the expected elimination of extensive flight testing of an airplane for performance determination. Because the optimizing control will automatically achieve its performance when the airplane is in this state, it would contribute to that end. But moreover, in all circumstances such as the through flying atmosphere, the ability of an optimizing control to extract the best performance of a radically changed system through ice deposition on the airplane may be of substantial importance.

There are two dimensions of theory in the theory of optimizing control. One dimension of theory is the dynamic effects of the system on its performance of its control. The other problem is the elimination of the interference by noise. The two problems are somewhat interrelated, because if large deviations from the optimum operating point and hence large loss can be tolerated, then the noise interference will not be critical. The basic design aim of optimizing control is to have the equivalent loss or to operate as close to the optimum point as possible without the danger of having its control vitiated by the noise interference. Both of these problems were considered by the original inventors of optimizing control. The noise problem is essentially the problem of detection of a somewhat variation with heavy random interference, a subject of much current investigation. The purpose of the present paper is to solve the first problem completely under the assumption that the dynamic behavior of a controlled system can be approximated by first order linear systems. We shall begin with a brief review of the operating principles of optimizing control of the present-day type — a type least affected by the noise interference.

(Early, no noise case)

### Principle of Optimal

The heart of an optimizing control system is the nonlinear component which characterizes the optimum operating condition of the controlled system. In simplicity of discussion, it is assumed that this basic component has a single input and a single output. In view of this, the dynamic effects will be neglected and the output is assumed to be determined by the instantaneous value of the input. Since there is an optimum point, output as a function of input has a maximum at the output  $y_0$  at the input  $x_0$ , as shown in Fig. 1. It is convenient to refer the output and the input to the optimum point and put the physical input as  $x + x_0$ , and the physical output as  $y + y_0$ . The optimum point is then the point  $x = y = 0$ . The task of an optimizing control is then to search out this optimum point and to keep the system in the immediate neighborhood of this point. In this neighborhood, the relation between  $x$  and  $y$  can be approximated as

$$y = -bx^2 \quad (1)$$

where  $b$  is a characteristic constant of the controlled system.

The operation of a peak-holding optimizing control, neglecting the dynamic effects, then would be as follows: Let the output  $x$  is below the optimum value, and is thus negative. The input  $u$  is then set to increase the input at a constant rate. At the time instant 1 (Fig. 2) the input changes from negative to positive and passes through the optimum point. The output  $y$  is thus maximum at the time instant 1, and is decreasing after the instant 1. Now if an output-sensing instrument is so designed as to follow the output exactly when the output is increasing, but hold to the maximum value after its maximum is passed and the output starts to decrease. Then the

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will be a difference between the reading of this output sensing system at and the output after the time instant 1. This difference is shown in the lower graph of Fig. 2. When this difference is built up to a critical value  $C$  at the time instant 2, the input drive is dropped and the direction of the input drive is reversed, but still at the same constant rate as before. After the instant 2, the input decreases and the output increases till a maximum in output is again reached at the time instant 3. At time instant 3, the input of course again changes from positive to negative, and the indicated difference between the output sensing instrument and the output itself again builds up. At the time instant 4, the difference reaches the critical value  $C$  again and the input drive direction is again reversed. At the time instant 5, the input becomes zero again and a new maximum of the output  $y^0$  is reached. The period of input variation is thus the time interval from the instant 1 to the instant 5, and consists of a series of straightline segments. The period of output variation is the time interval from the instant 1 to the instant 3, and consists of a series of parabolic arcs. The periodic variations of input and output are called the hunting of the system and the period of output variation is called the hunting period  $T$ . The period of input variation is then  $2T$ .

The extreme variation of output  $\Delta$  (Fig. 2) is called the hunting error. If  $a$  is the amplitude of the triangular waves of the input (Fig. 2), then due to Eq. (1),

$$\Delta = ka^2 \quad (2)$$

The difference between the maximum output and the average output of the hunting system is called the hunting loss  $D$  (Fig. 2) because of the fact that the output is a series of parabolic arcs,

$$D = \frac{1}{3}A - \frac{1}{3}ka^2 \quad \text{indicated} \quad (3)$$

In this idealized case, ~~it is evident that~~ the critical difference  $c$  between the output sensing instrument and the output itself is equal to  $A$ , the hunting error. It is then clear from this discussion that in order to reduce the hunting loss for better efficiency  $A$  is necessary, we must try to reduce the hunting power or the amplitude of input variation. Unfortunately, the critical indicated difference  $c$  is also reduced with reduction and a limit is set to the noise interference in the frequency operation of the input device.

The dynamic effects are so far understood but in any physical system, this is not enough due to the over limit initial and damping time. The output  $y^*$  given by Eq. (1) has to be considered from the behavior "situation" without but not as actual output  $y$  measured by the output instrument and sensing instrument.  $y^*$  is equal to  $y$  only when the period  $T$  of hunting becomes very long. The relation between  $y^*$  and  $y$  is determined by the dynamic system. For a conventional engine and so, the dynamical effects is determined by a linear relation. For instance, in case of internal combustion engine, the potential output is constant, as the sensed effect is more potential in the engine system, which is actual output as the driver means effective pressure of the engine. In dynamical effects are here mainly due to the inertia of the piston, the crankshaft and other moving parts of the engine. The small changes in the operating conditions of engine, such dynamical effects can be represented as a linear differential equation with constant coefficients. Since the average level of input and output is taken to be the optimum point is and the optimum output  $y_0$ , the physical potential output is  $y^* = y_0$  and the physical actual output is  $y = y_0$ . Then the relation between

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physical potential output and the physical actual output can be written as an operator equation

$$(\dot{y} + y_0) = F_0 \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right) (\dot{y} + y_0) \quad (\text{two differentiable}) \quad (4)$$

where  $F_0$  is generally the quotient of two polynomials in the operator  $\frac{d}{dt}$  in the time case of Laplace transform here,  $F(s)$  is the transfer function of the linear system which transforms the potential output to actual output, the output linear group. Then  $F(s)$  is, strictly, the transfer function of the output linear group. By implication however, when we discuss effects on a variable in a case  $s=0$ , the potential output is equal to its actual output. Therefore

$$F_0/0 = 1 \quad (5)$$

Since  $y_0$  in Eq. (4) is a constant independent of time, the const. of Eq. (5) then simplifies that equation to

$$y = F_0 \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right) \dot{y} \quad (6)$$

In a similar manner, let  $x^*$  be the "potential input" which is actually the forcing function generated by the optimizing control system but not the actual input  $x$ . It is  $x^*$  which has the same effect as  $x$  in Eq. 2 but it is  $x^*$ . The relation between  $x$  and  $x^*$  is determined by the initial and dynamic effects of the input drive system. This input drive system can be called the "input linear group" of the optimizing control. The operator equation between the potential input  $x^*$  and the actual input  $x$  is

$$x = F_0 \left( \frac{d}{dt} \right) x^* \quad (7)$$

$F_0(s)$  is thus the transfer function of the input linear group. Similar to Eq. (5), the meaning of notation in a actual inputs holds:

$$F_0/0 = 1 \quad (8)$$

is a simple representative block diagram of the complete optimizing control system can be drawn as shown in Fig. 2. The nonlinear elements of the system are thus the optimizing input drive and the controller system itself.

### Formulation of the Mathematical Problem

The general relation between the actual  $x$  and the reference  $x^*$  is determined by the system of Eqs. (1), (6) and (7), with the reference input  $x^*$  at its input. It is a sinusoidal wave with period  $2T$  and amplitude  $a$ . Let  $\omega_0$  be the frequency defined by

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T} \quad (9)$$

then  $x^*$  can be expanded into a Fourier series,

$$\begin{aligned} x^* &= \frac{\rho A}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)^2} \cdot \frac{\rho_0}{2} \cdot \frac{\omega_0 t}{2} \\ &= \frac{\rho A}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)^2} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi n\omega_0 t} e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} - e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} dt \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

hence by using Eq. (7), the actual input  $x$  is given by

$$x = \frac{\rho A}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)^2} \int_0^{2\pi n\omega_0 t} e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} - e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} dt \quad (11)$$

be (1) and (6) then give the actual output as

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \frac{\rho A^2}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)^2} \int_0^{2\pi n\omega_0 t} \left[ F_0(1/n\omega_0) F_0(-2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - F_0(1/n\omega_0) F_0(-2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) \right] e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} \\ &\quad - F_0(1/n\omega_0) F_0(-2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} \\ &\quad + F_0(1/n\omega_0) F_0(-2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) F_0(2n\omega_0) e^{-\frac{2n\omega_0}{2} i\omega_0 t} \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

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By comparing Eqs. (10) and (12), it is seen that the input has half the frequency of the output. This is, of course, to be expected from the basic kinematic relation of input and output.

The average of the actual output  $g$  with respect to time  $t$ , being here referred to the optimum output  $g_0$ , gives directly the hunting loss. Eq. (12) shows that this average value is the sum of terms with  $k=0$  from one around and the third terms of that series. Therefore, using Eq. (8),

$$D = \frac{92a^2k}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k+1)^2} F_0\left(\frac{2\omega t}{2}\right) F_2\left(-\frac{2\omega t}{2}\right) \quad (13)$$

This equation can be easily obtained by observing that when the dynamic effects are absent,  $F_2 \equiv 1$ , then the series can be easily summed and  $D = \frac{92a^2k}{\pi^2}$  as required by Eq. (3). Eq. (13) also shows that the average output and hence the hunting loss are independent of the output linear gain. This agrees with the basic physical understanding. Only detailed time variation of the output is modified by the dynamics of the output linear group. In case of an internal combustion engine, the average output electric the power of the engine. The dynamics of the output linear group is determined by the inertia of the moving parts. The inertia of the engine is certainly independent of the inertia of the moving parts.

Eqs. (10) to (13) fully determine the performance in optimizing control system once the values of  $a$ ,  $k$ ,  $\omega_0$  are described and the transfer functions  $F_0(\omega)$  and  $F_2(\omega)$  of the input linear group and the output linear group are given. The following section gives the detailed calculations and results for the case first order input and output groups.

### First Order Input and Output Groups

The frequency  $\omega_0$  of the optimizing control is usually quite low,



Design Plot

From the principle of operation of the peak-holding optimizing control it is seen that the most important quantity to be specified ~~for~~ <sup>and</sup> its design is the critical indicated difference  $c$  between the <sup>indicated</sup> ~~actual~~ output sensing instrument and the output itself. By definition,  $c$  is the difference of the maximum of the actual output  $y$  and the value of  $y$  at the tripping instant of the input drive. The instant of maximum of the input drive is specified by  $t/T = \frac{1}{2}$ . If the corresponding instant of maximum  $y$  is  $t^*$ , then the critical indicated difference  $c$  is calculated as

$$c = y\left(\frac{t^*}{T}\right) - y\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \quad (3')$$

by using either of the Eqs. (22), (28) and (29). Since the instants of input drive reversal must come after the instant of maximum output,  $t^*/T < \frac{1}{2}$ .

To determine  $t^*$ , we may use the condition of zero slope, i.e.,  $dy/dt = 0$ .

Then Eq. (27a) gives

$$\begin{aligned} & -\left[\frac{t^*}{T} - \left(\frac{\tau_1}{T} + \frac{\tau_2}{T}\right)\right] + \frac{(\tau_2/T) \left[2\left(\frac{\tau_1}{T}\right)^3 \tanh \frac{T}{2\tau_2} - 1\right] e^{-\frac{t^*}{\tau_1}}}{2\left(\frac{\tau_1}{T} - \frac{\tau_2}{T}\right) \left[2\left(\frac{\tau_2}{T} - \frac{\tau_1}{T}\right) \tanh \frac{T}{2\tau_2} - 1\right]} \\ & + \left[1 - \left(\frac{\tau_1}{T}\right)\left(\frac{T}{\tau_2}\right) - \frac{\tau_1/T}{\frac{\tau_1}{T} - \frac{\tau_2}{T}}\right] \frac{\left(\frac{\tau_1}{T}\right) e^{-\frac{t^*}{\tau_1}}}{\left(\frac{\tau_1}{T} - \frac{\tau_2}{T}\right) \cosh \frac{T}{2\tau_2}} - \frac{\left(\frac{\tau_1}{T}\right) e^{-\frac{1/2}{\tau_1}}}{\left(2\frac{\tau_2}{T} - \frac{\tau_1}{T}\right) \cosh \frac{T}{2\tau_2}} = 0 \quad (4) \end{aligned}$$

This transcendental equation for  $t^*/T$  may be solved by iteration. For instance, for small  $\tau_1/T$  and  $\tau_2/T$ ,  $t^*/T \approx (\tau_1 + \tau_2)/T$ . The results of calculation are shown in Fig. 9, which shows that  $t^*/T$  is almost only a function of  $(\tau_1 + \tau_2)/T$  with minor variations from the parameter  $\tau_1/\tau_2$ , the ratio of characteristic times of the output device and the input device.

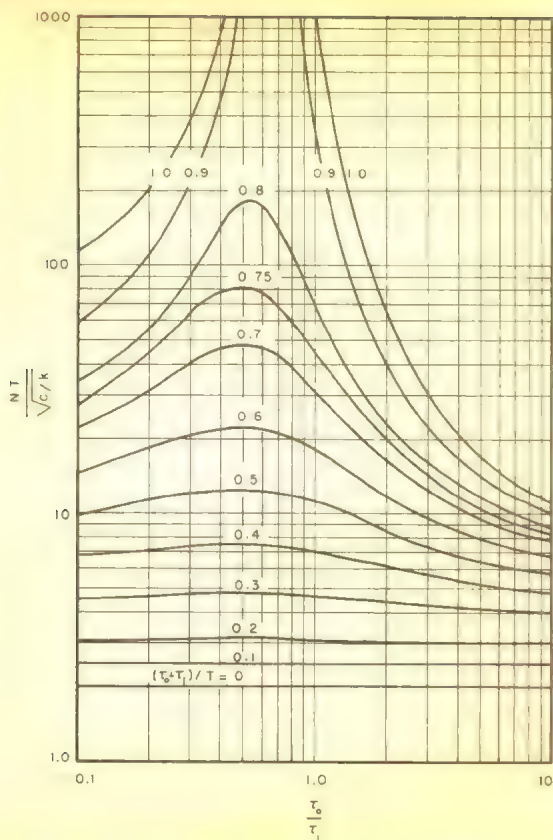
16

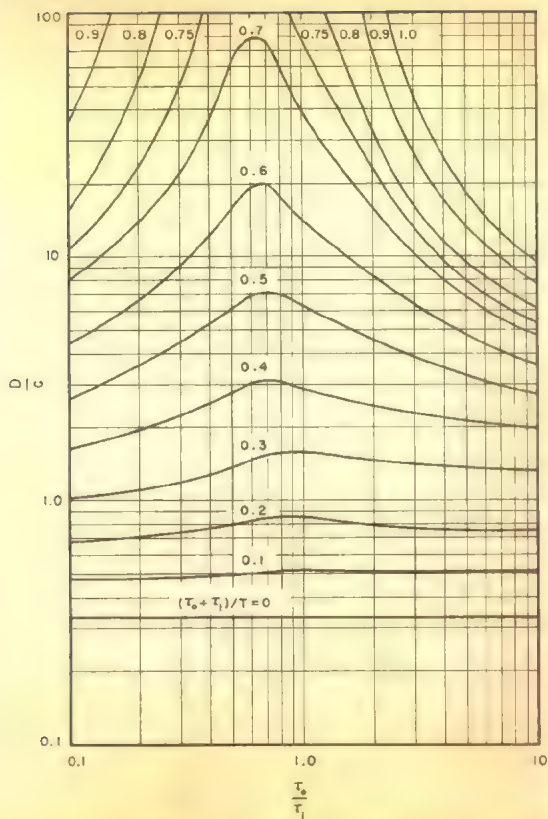
With this determined, Eq. (31) can be substituted in Eq. (27a). However the involved quantities of anaturalizing control are  $n$ , the characteristics of the controlled system, and  $\tau_1, \tau_2$ , the characteristics of the linear groups. From considerations on the noise interference, the designer can make an appropriate choice of the period  $T$  and the critical indicated difference  $c$  for input drive removal. Therefore the quantities which the designer wish to know, after he has the values of  $k, \tau_1, \tau_2, T$  and  $c$ , are  $N$ , the input drive speed, and  $D$ , the hunting loss. Thus the result of calculation with Eq. (31) should be written as follows:

[illegible]

When  $N$  is determined, Eq. (30) then gives the hunting loss  $D$ .

Fig. 10 and 11 as the design charts for peak-holdings of materials which computed from the equations of the breeding analysis. Fig. 10 gives  $TN/\sqrt{cE}$  as a function of  $(T_0+T_2)/T$  with  $T_0/T_2$  as parameter. Fig. 11 gives  $D/c$  again as a function of  $(T_0+T_2)/T$  with  $T_0/T_2$  as parameter.





### 3.6

#### Noise Filtering in a Guidance System

#### 制导系统的噪声滤波

这是作者对火箭的制导系统噪声滤波所做的一个完整分析的部分手稿，共有7页。这一工作并未形成正式论文，工作时间不详。

在任何 一个工程系统中都存在噪声和干扰，甚至于“完善”的系统也有热扰动。只有在信号比干扰强得多的情况下，噪声和干扰对控制系统的影响才能忽略不计。在自动寻求最优运转点系统的设计中，为了减少噪声和干扰使输出信号变模糊的程度，减少输出的搜索损失，需要对噪声进行处理。一个有效的方法是在控制系统中引入一个过滤噪声的装置。

作者的这一工作是将噪声滤波的方法应用到火箭的制导系统中，这里选印手稿的开头和结尾两部分，共7页。前面2页是开头部分，把噪声过滤提成一个变分问题，即寻求过滤器应配备什么样的特性（由过滤器对单位脉冲的响应函数 $h$ 表示），才能使误差达到最小，从而在最大程度上滤掉噪声而显示有用信号。后面5页是结尾部分，讨论了一般的线性过滤处理白噪声的情况，说明经过过滤能得到肯定的效果。这些结果被作者收入《工程控制论》一书。

# Error Estimation in a Guidance System

Let the error  $\epsilon$  be given by the following integral

$$\epsilon = \int_0^T [\alpha(t)x(t) + \beta(t)y(t)] dt \quad (1)$$

where

$$t = \text{time}$$

$$T = \text{flight duration of missile trajectory}$$

$$x(t) = \text{position}$$

$$\dot{x}(t) = \text{velocity}$$

$$x(t) = \text{control}$$

$$y(t) = \text{true tracking information, and } \sigma \text{ a measure of the}$$

noise in the information

$$\langle n(t) \rangle = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\langle n(t_1)n(t_2) \rangle = \delta(t_1 - t_2) R(t) \quad (3)$$

the information received is

$$y(t) = \alpha(t)x(t) +$$

Let

$$\alpha(t)x(t) + \beta(t) \left[ y(t) + \int_0^t y(t_1) n(t_1) dt_1 \right] = 0 \quad (4)$$

then

$$\epsilon = - \int_0^T \alpha(t) \int_0^t y(t_1) n(t_1) dt_1 dt - \int_0^T \beta(t) y(t) dt \quad (5)$$

consider

$$\langle \epsilon \rangle = - \int_0^T \alpha(t) \int_0^t y(t_1) \langle n(t_1) \rangle dt_1 dt \quad (6)$$

or

$$\langle \epsilon \rangle = - \int_0^T \alpha(t) \int_0^T y(t_1) \langle n(t_1) \rangle dt_1 dt \quad (7)$$

hence

$$\langle \epsilon \rangle = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$\int_0^T \beta(\tau) h(\tau, t) d\tau = 0 \quad (9)$$

Then, Eq. (5) gives

$$\xi = - \int_0^T \beta(t) \left[ n(t) + \int_0^t n(\tau) h(t, \tau) d\tau \right] dt \quad (10)$$

Or

$$\begin{aligned} \xi^2 &= \int_0^T \int_0^T \left[ n(t) + \int_0^t n(\tau) h(t, \tau) d\tau \right] \left[ n(t') + \int_0^{t'} n(\tau') h(t', \tau') d\tau' \right] dt dt' \\ &= \int_0^T \int_0^T dt dt' \left[ n(t) n(t') + \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} \beta(t) \beta(t') h(t, \tau) h(t', \tau') d\tau d\tau' \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 2 \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} dt dt' \beta(t) \beta(t') \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} n(\tau) n(\tau') h(t, \tau) h(t', \tau') d\tau d\tau' \right] \quad (11) \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \xi^2 \rangle, \langle n^2 \rangle &= \int_0^T \int_0^T dt dt' \beta(t) \beta(t') R(t-t) \\ &\quad + 2 \int_0^T \int_0^T dt dt' \beta(t) \beta(t') \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} R(t'-\tau) h(t, \tau) h(t', \tau') d\tau d\tau' \\ &\quad + \int_0^T \int_0^T dt dt' \beta(t) \beta(t') \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} R(t'-\tau) \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} n(\tau) n(\tau') h(t, \tau) h(t', \tau') d\tau d\tau' \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

According to Eq. (2),

The problem is: Given  $\beta(t)$ ,  $R(t)$ , determine  $\langle \xi^2 \rangle$ ,  $\langle n^2 \rangle$ .  
Eq. (9) is satisfied and  $\langle \xi^2 \rangle, \langle n^2 \rangle$  of Eq. (12) is a minimum.

II) Let us assume noise source can be seen as follows:

Ex. 1. If  $\beta(t) = \text{constant}$ , then Eq. (9) will be satisfied.  
Let  $\beta(t, \tau)$  exist in  $\tau$  with restriction  $\tau = -T$  to  $T$ .

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$$H(s) = - \frac{f}{2\pi \omega_0 \sqrt{L_2}} \cdot \frac{1}{s^2} \cdot \frac{\left( \frac{1}{L_2} \right) E(s) + \left( \frac{1}{L_2} \right) E(s) + \left( \frac{1}{L_2} \right) B(s)}{s^2} \quad (37)$$

$$\psi : \psi_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\psi(s) = \psi_1(s) B(s)$$

$$y(-s) = \frac{1}{s} (1-s) B(s)$$

$$H'(x) = \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x^2}} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{Q_1\left(\frac{t}{b}\right) R(t)}{R_1(t)} dt$$

the results of the present study are consistent with the results of other studies. The results of the present study are consistent with the results of other studies.

$$H_{\text{eff}} = H_0 + H_1 + H_2 + \dots$$

7. 139,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \right) \quad \text{for } x > 0$$

...  $\frac{1}{2}$  ...



$$\begin{aligned}
I &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt + 2 \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_t^T \rho(t') h(t', z) dt' \\
&+ 2 \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} h(t', z) h(t', z) dt' \\
&+ 2 \int_0^T (a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 + \dots + a_n t^n) dt \int_t^T \rho(t') h(t', z) dt' \\
\{I\} &= 2 \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_t^T \rho(t') \delta h(t', z) dt' \\
&+ 2 \int_0^T (a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 + \dots + a_n t^n) dt \int_t^T \rho(t') \delta h(t', z) dt' \\
&+ 2 \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} \delta h(t', z) h(t', z) dt' \\
&+ 2 \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} h(t', z) \delta h(t', z) dt' \\
\text{故} \quad &\int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} \delta h(t', z) h(t', z) dt' \\
&= \int_0^T dt \int_t^T \rho(t') h(t', z) dt' \int_0^t \rho(t) \delta h(t, z) dt \\
&= \int_0^T dt \int_0^t \rho(t) dt \int_t^T \rho(t') h(t', z) dt' \int_0^t \rho(t) \delta h(t, z) dt \\
\rho_{int} &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} h(t', z) dt' \\
&= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} h(t', z) \delta h(t', z) dt' \\
&= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^t \rho(t') dt' \int_0^{t'} h(t', z) \delta h(t', z) dt'
\end{aligned}$$

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Therefore

$$\delta I = -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left[ \beta(t) + a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n + \int_0^T \beta(t) h(t, z) dt + \int_0^T \beta(t) h_1(t, z) dt \right] dt$$

Thus  $\delta I = 0$  for any  $\beta(t, z)$  requires

$$\boxed{\beta(t) + a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n + \int_0^T \beta(t) h(t, z) dt = 0} \quad (4a)$$

Then Eq. (3a) can be written as

$$\int_0^T z^n (a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n) dt = - \int_0^T z^n \beta(t) dt$$

$$\text{Or } \frac{T^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} a_0 + \frac{n+1}{(n+1)!} T a_1 + \frac{n+1}{(n+1)!} T^2 a_2 + \dots + \frac{n+1}{(n+1)!} T^n a_n = - \int_0^T z^n \beta(t) dt$$

$$\text{Or } \boxed{a_0 + \frac{n+1}{(n+1)!} T a_1 + \frac{(n+1)}{(n+1)!} T^2 a_2 + \dots + \frac{(n+1)}{(n+1)!} T^n a_n = - \frac{n!}{T^{n+1}} \int_0^T z^n \beta(t) dt}$$

$$n=0, 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (4b)$$

or eq. for  $a_i$

If  $n=1$ ,

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{2} T a_1 = - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \beta(t) dt$$

$$a_0 + \frac{3}{2} T a_1 = - \frac{3}{T} \int_0^T t \beta(t) dt$$

$$\frac{1}{6} T a_1 = \frac{1}{T} \left[ \int_0^T (1 - \frac{3}{2} t) \beta(t) dt \right]$$

$$T a_1 = \frac{6}{T} \left[ \int_0^T (1 - \frac{3}{2} t) \beta(t) dt \right]$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} T a_1 = \frac{3}{T} \left[ \int_0^T (-1 + \frac{3}{2} t) \beta(t) dt \right]$$

$$a_1 = - \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T (2 - \frac{3}{2} t) \beta(t) dt$$

$$\rho(t) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T (2 - \frac{t}{T}) \rho(t) dt + \frac{T}{T} \left( \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T (1 - \frac{t}{T}) \rho(t) dt \right) + \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T (t - \frac{t^2}{T}) \rho(t) dt$$

It can be seen, it is evident that the coefficients  $a_i$  are determined once  $\rho(t)$  is determined. Let us call the  $\rho(t)$  a  $\rho(t)$ .

$$\pi(t) = a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n$$

Then

$$\int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau = -\beta(\tau) - \pi(\tau)$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \xi' \rangle \langle \eta' \rangle &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt + \int_0^T \rho(t) \left( -\beta(t) - \pi(t) \right) dt \\ &+ \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^T h(t, \tau) d\tau \\ &+ \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^T \rho(t) dt \int_0^T h(t, \tau) d\tau \\ &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt + \int_0^T \rho(t) \left( -\beta(t) - \pi(t) \right) dt \\ &+ \int_0^T dt \int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau \left( \int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau - \int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau \right) \\ &+ \int_0^T dt \int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau \int_0^T \rho(t) h(t, \tau) d\tau \\ &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt + \int_0^T \rho(t) \left( -\beta(t) - \pi(t) \right) dt \\ &= \int_0^T \rho(t) dt + \int_0^T \rho(t) \left( -\beta(t) - \pi(t) \right) dt \end{aligned}$$

(18)

Eq. (39) and (40) also give

$$\int_0^T \dot{\pi}(t) dt = - \int_0^T \beta(t) \pi(t) dt$$

$$\text{or} \quad \int_0^T \pi(t) \{ \beta(t) + \pi(t) \} dt = 0. \quad (42)$$

Then

$$\int_0^T \dot{\beta}(t) dt - \int_0^T \pi(t) dt = \text{imp. moment of } \langle \dot{\varepsilon}^2 \rangle / \langle \varepsilon^2 \rangle \text{ by}$$

definition,

$$= \int_0^T \{ \dot{\beta}(t) + \pi(t) \}' \beta(t) - \pi(t) dt$$

but due to Eq. (42),

$$\text{imp. moment} = \int_0^T \{ \dot{\beta}(t) + \pi(t) \}^2 dt \geq 0. \quad \text{eval.}$$

# 物 理 力 学

## 4. 1

### The Properties of Pure Liquids

#### 液体特性

液体特性的研究是作者于1952年完成的。现存文稿包括：(1)论文手稿(30页)，(2)S. S. Penner (潘纳)提供的文献单，(3)收集的实验资料、数据及其处理，(4)量子效应的讨论，(5)题为“Lennard-Jones-Devonshire Theory”(林纳德-琼斯-德文沙理论)实为论文的理论推导(13页)，(6)题为“Buckingham Potential”(伯金汉势)实为用伯金汉势作为分子势的理论推导等。这里只选印论文手稿之首页及林纳德-琼斯-德文沙理论的推导13页。

论文“The Properties of Pure Liquids”(液体特性)正式发表于《J. Amer. Rocket Society》(美国火箭学会学报)，Vol. 23, No. 1, 17-24 (1953)。后来作者将其主要内容收入他所编著的《物理力学讲义》(1962)之中，构成其第九章“液体与稠密气体”的内容之一部分。在论文的序言部分着重指出，其追求不在于完全从原子分子层次出发给出计算液体性质的严格方法，而是把理论当做一种构架，就像传统的固体力学和流体力学中的“量纲分析”一样，将液体性质参数关联成相互依存的无量纲量，用部分实验结果将其定量化。例如把液体的压缩系数与沸点、密度和分子量关联起来。一种液体的沸点、密度和分子量易于查找或测定，而压缩系数并非总可

查到的。用本文中的方法则可使工程师们在做出定量估计时有可靠的依据。

这里给出的是该论文理论框架的推导过程。原稿的标题是“Lennard - Jones - Devonshire Theory”（林纳德 - 琼斯 - 德文沙理论）。计算初始的物理模型是当时最为成功的“笼子”理论。作者的工作是从笼子模型配分函数统计表达式的  $g$  积分进行渐近展开近似开始的，从而可以得到关于  $g$  的一个解析表达式（当时物理化学家们的主要努力是集中到对  $g$  求一个数值表的道路）。手稿中有作者用 Buckingham Potential（伯金汉势）在同样模型下进行的推导，但是他在论文发表时并未使用。手稿中包括作者当时收集的大量实验资料，显然，这部分内容对论文的成功是必不可少的。

# The Properties of Liquids

H. S. Tien<sup>\*</sup>

James and Florence Guggenheim Jr. Professor, Center, California Institute of Technology

## Summary

By a semi-empirical approach, a method is found to calculate the compressibility of a normal liquid at normal density from the specific heat of the gaseous state at the same temperature. It is also found that the coefficient of thermal expansion, the compressibility and the sound of sound of the liquid can be calculated accurately if the density, the molecular weight and the normal boiling temperature of the liquid at atmospheric pressure are known. Finally a method of estimating the thermal conductivity of all liquids, except liquid water, from compressibility and density is developed. For normal liquids, the thermal conductivity can again be determined if only the normal boiling temperature, density and molecular weight are known.

<sup>\*</sup> Robert H. Goddard Professor of the Institution

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Lennard-Jones, Devonshire, Henry

J.-Ch. p. 336 -

The equation of state is given by

$$P = \frac{\epsilon}{V} \{ T \log (2\pi)^{3/2} V + A^* [1 + (\frac{V^*}{V})^2] - 0.5 (\frac{V^*}{V})^{10} \}$$

where  $\gamma = a^3/V$ ,  $a$  is the average distance between nearest neighbors,  $V$  is the volume occupied per molecule. For a face centered cubic lattice, the edge of an elementary cubic cell containing four molecules is equal to  $a\sqrt{2}$ ,  $V = \frac{1}{4}(a\sqrt{2})^3 = \frac{1}{4}a^3$ , or  $\gamma = a^3$ .

$$\beta = - \int_0^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} \gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left( - \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^6 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^3 + \frac{A^*}{6T} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{10} \right) d\gamma$$

where

$$A^* = \pi \epsilon_m$$

and  $\pi$  is the coordination number, for face centered cubic lattice is 12,  $\epsilon_m$  is minimum potential for bi-molecular interaction.

In fact, the bi-molecular interaction is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon(r) &= \epsilon_m \left[ \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^{12} - 2 \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^6 \right] \\ &= 4\epsilon_m \left[ \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^6 \right] \quad \gamma r_0^6 = r^{*6} \end{aligned}$$

$$V^* = \frac{V}{a^3} r_0^3 = \frac{1}{\gamma} r^{*3} = \frac{a^3}{\gamma} r_0^3$$

$$\text{and} \quad \beta(r) = \frac{1 + 12 + \frac{12 \cdot 2}{12} \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^6 + 12 \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^{12}}{1 - \left( \frac{r^*}{r} \right)^{10}} - 1, \quad \beta(a) = 0$$

$$\eta(\gamma) = \frac{1 + \gamma}{(1 - \gamma)^3} - 1, \quad \eta(1) = 1$$



First Approximation,  $V \ll V^*$

$$(1-\beta)^{-10} = 1 + 10\beta + \frac{10 \cdot 11}{2} \beta^2 + \dots$$

$$l(\beta) = (1 + 12\beta + 25.2\beta^2 + \dots)(1 + 10\beta + \frac{10 \cdot 11}{2} \beta^2 + \dots) - 1$$

$$= 22\beta + 201.2\beta^2 + \dots$$

$$(1-\beta)^{-4} = 1 + 4\beta + 10\beta^2 + \dots$$

$$m(\beta) = (1 + \beta)(1 + 4\beta + 10\beta^2 + \dots) - 1 = 5\beta + 14\beta^2 + \dots$$

$$\beta = \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \beta^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{A^*}{kT(V)}\right) (22\beta + 201.2\beta^2 + \dots) + 2 \frac{A^*}{kT(V)} (5\beta + 14\beta^2 + \dots) d\beta$$

let us introduce

$$\frac{A^*}{kT(V)} \beta^{\frac{1}{2}} = \xi, \quad \beta = \frac{1}{22} \left( \frac{kT(V)}{A^*} \right)^2 \xi^2$$

$$-\frac{A^*}{kT(V)} \beta^{\frac{1}{2}} = -\frac{201.2}{22^2} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{kT(V)}{A^*}\right)^2} \xi^2$$

$$2 \frac{A^*}{kT(V)} \beta^{\frac{1}{2}} \xi = \frac{10}{22} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{kT(V)}{A^*}\right)^2} \xi$$

$$\beta^{\frac{1}{2}} d\beta = \frac{2}{3} d\left(\beta^{\frac{3}{2}}\right) = \xi^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{1}{22} \frac{kT(V)}{A^*} \left(\frac{kT(V)}{A^*}\right)^2 \right]^{\frac{3}{2}} d\xi$$

$$\beta = \left[ \frac{kT(V)}{22A^*} \left(\frac{kT(V)}{A^*}\right)^2 \right]^{\frac{2}{3}} \int_0^{\frac{22A^*}{kT(V)} \beta^{\frac{1}{2}}} \xi^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\xi} \left( 1 + \frac{10}{22} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{kT(V)}{A^*}\right)^2} \xi \right) d\xi$$

2

Approximation for small  $V$

$$l(\eta) = 22\eta + 201.2\eta^2 + \dots$$

$$(1-\eta)^6 = 1 + 6\eta + 15\eta^2 + 20\eta^3 + 15\eta^4 + 6\eta^5 + \eta^6 + \dots$$

$$m(\eta) = 5\eta + 14\eta^2 + 30\eta^3 + 55\eta^4 + \dots$$

$$\eta = \left( \frac{A}{kT} \right)^{1/2} \exp \left( - \frac{A^* (V^*)^6}{k^2 T^2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{10} \eta + 201.2 \eta^2 + \dots + \frac{A^*}{kT} \eta^6 \right) \left( \frac{1}{5} \eta + 14 \eta^2 + \dots \right)$$

Now let us put

$$22 \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^6 \eta = \xi$$

$$\frac{22 A^* (V^*)^6}{4 k T}$$

$$\eta = \left( \frac{1}{22} \frac{kT}{A^*} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6 \right)^{1/2} \left( \xi^2 e^{-\xi} A^* \exp \left( \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6 \right) - \frac{100}{242} \frac{kT}{A^*} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6 + \frac{7}{11} \left( \frac{1}{V} \right)^6 \right)$$

$$- \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^6 201.2 \eta^2 = - \frac{201.2}{22^2} \frac{1}{\left( \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6 \right)^2} \xi^2$$

$$2 \frac{A^* (V^*)^6}{kT} 5 \eta = \frac{10}{22} \frac{1}{\left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6} \xi$$

$$2 \frac{A^* (V^*)^6}{kT} 14 \eta^2 = \frac{28}{22} \frac{1}{\left( \frac{A^*}{kT} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^6 \right)^2} \xi^2$$

$$\text{But } \int_0^{\infty} \frac{22A^*}{4kT} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{V^2}{V^{*2}}} d\frac{V}{V^*} = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{22A^*}{4kT} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{V^2}{V^{*2}}} d\frac{V}{V^*} - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{22A^*}{4kT} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{V^2}{V^{*2}}} d\frac{V}{V^*}$$

$$\approx \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$$

$$\rho \approx \left[ \frac{kT}{22A^*} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{22} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right) + \dots$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \left( \frac{kT}{22A^*} \right)^{\frac{3}{4}} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \left[ 1 + \frac{15}{22} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \dots \right]$$

$$\log \rho = \log \left[ \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \left( \frac{kT}{22A^*} \right)^{\frac{3}{4}} \right] + \frac{1}{4} \log V + \frac{15}{22} \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \dots$$

$$\text{So } P = kT \left[ \frac{7}{V} + \frac{15}{11} \frac{V}{V^{*2}} \right] - A^* \left[ 2.4 \frac{V^{*2}}{V^3} - 4.0 \frac{V^{*4}}{V^5} \right]$$

$$P = \frac{kT}{V} \left[ \frac{7}{2} \frac{A^*}{kT} \left(\frac{V^*}{V}\right)^4 \left( 1 - 1.2 \left(\frac{V}{V^*}\right)^2 \right) + 7 + \frac{15}{11} \frac{V^*}{V} \right]$$

$$\frac{A^*}{kT} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\epsilon_h}{kT} = \left( \frac{8\epsilon_h}{k} \right) \frac{1}{T}$$

6

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left( \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 - \frac{100.6}{242} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^4 + \frac{7}{12} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^6 - 1 \right) \\
 & = 1 + \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 - \frac{100.6}{242} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^4 + \frac{7}{12} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^6 \\
 & \quad + \frac{25}{242} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^8 - \frac{503}{242} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^3 \\
 & \quad + \frac{125}{1231} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^5 - \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f &= \left( \frac{KT}{22A^0} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^6 \left[ \Gamma \left( \frac{3}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{12} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \Gamma \left( \frac{5}{2} \right) + \frac{25}{242} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^4 \left( 1 - \frac{100.6}{25} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \right) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. + \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right)^2 \left( \frac{7}{12} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \Gamma \left( \frac{7}{2} \right) - \frac{503}{242} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \Gamma \left( \frac{5}{2} \right) + \frac{125}{1231} \Gamma \left( \frac{3}{2} \right) \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \left( \frac{KT}{22A^0} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^6 \left[ 1 + \frac{15}{22} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 + \frac{15}{4} \frac{25}{242} \left( 1 - \frac{100.6}{25} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \right) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. + \frac{35 \cdot 125}{16 \cdot 1231} \left( 1 - \frac{8 \cdot 1992}{125} \frac{503}{242} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) + \frac{6 \cdot 1992}{125} \frac{7}{12} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2} \left( \frac{KT}{22A^0} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^6 \left[ 1 + \frac{15}{22} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 + \frac{15}{4} \frac{25}{242} \left( 1 - 4.024 \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \right) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. + \frac{35 \cdot 125}{16 \cdot 1231} \left( 1 - \frac{1327}{125} \left( \frac{KT}{A^0} \right) \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^2 \right) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log pV &= \log \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \frac{16T}{22A^0} \frac{1}{V^0} + \frac{7}{2} \log V \\
 &+ \frac{15}{22} \frac{1}{V^0} + \frac{15}{4} \frac{25}{242} \left\{ 1 - 4.024 \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 + \frac{25 \cdot 125}{16 \cdot 1331} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1377}{125} \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. - \frac{9 \cdot 25}{8 \cdot 121} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 - \frac{225 \cdot 25}{88 \cdot 242} \left\{ 1 - 4.024 \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right. \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. \left. + \frac{15^3}{3 \cdot 22^3} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right\} \right\} \right\} \\
 &= \log \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \frac{16T}{22A^0} \frac{1}{V^0} + \frac{7}{2} \log V + \frac{15}{22} \frac{1}{V^0} + \frac{25}{4 \cdot 242} \left\{ 1 - 15 \cdot 4.024 \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \frac{125}{16 \cdot 1331} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1377}{125} \times 35 - 4.024 \times 45 \right\} \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{pV}{kT} &= 2 \frac{A^0}{kT} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \left\{ 1 - 12 \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^2 \right\} + \frac{7}{2} \\
 &+ \frac{15}{11} \frac{1}{V^0} + \frac{25}{242} \left\{ 1 - 15 \cdot 4.024 \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \frac{6 \cdot 125}{16 \cdot 1331} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1377}{125} \times 35 - 4.024 \times 45 \right\} \frac{6T}{A^0} \left( \frac{1}{V^0} \right)^4 \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\int_0^x \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} d\tau, \quad x \gg 1 \\
 &= - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} d\tau + \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} d\tau = \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} d\tau \\
 &= \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \left[ \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} \right]_x^{\infty} + \frac{1}{2} \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{-\tau} d\tau
 \end{aligned}$$

1

$$= \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - \left[ x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} + \frac{1}{2} x^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} - \frac{1}{4} x^{-\frac{3}{2}} e^{-x} + \frac{3}{8} x^{-\frac{5}{2}} e^{-x} \dots \right]$$

$$= \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{4x^2} + \frac{3}{8x^3} \dots \right] = \int_0^x x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx$$

$$\int_0^x x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - \int_x^\infty x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx$$

$$= \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{3}{4x^2} - \frac{1}{8x^3} \dots \right]$$

$$\int_0^x x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{15}{4x^2} + \frac{105}{8x^3} \dots \right]$$

$$\left[ \int_0^x x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{3}{4x^2} + \frac{15}{8x^3} + \dots \right] \right]$$

Therefore a more accurate value for  $g$  is

$$g \left( \frac{23\Lambda^*}{kT} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - \left( \frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left[ 1 + \frac{23kT}{23\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

$$+ \frac{5}{11} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - \left( \frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left[ 1 + \frac{23kT}{23\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right]$$

$$+ \frac{25}{242} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) - \left( \frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{23\Lambda^*}{4kT} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left[ 1 + \frac{23kT}{23\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V^*}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right]$$

The method is not right!

2

Genius method for small V

$$(1-y)^{-10} = 1 + 10y + 55y^2 + 220y^3 + \dots$$

$$L(y) = 10y + 55y^2 + 220y^3 + \dots$$

$$12y + 120y^2 + 660y^3 + \dots$$

$$25.2y^2 + 252y^3 + \dots$$

$$12y^3 + \dots$$

$$\frac{24y + 200.2y^2 + 1104y^3 + \dots}{11-y^4} = 1 + 4y + 10y^2 + 20y^3 + \dots$$

$$(1-y)^4 = 1 + 4y + 10y^2 + 20y^3 + \dots$$

$$n(y) = 5y + 14y^2 + 30y^3 + \dots$$

$$\text{Let } t = \frac{A^4}{h^4} \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^4, \text{ then}$$

$$- \frac{A^4}{h^4} \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^4 L(y) + 2 \frac{A^4}{h^4} \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 n(y)$$

$$= -t [L(y) - 2 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 n(y)]$$

$$= -t \left[ \left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} y + \left\{ 200.2 - 20 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} y^2 + \left\{ 1104 - 60 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} y^3 + \dots \right]$$

$$= -t \cdot \eta$$

$$\text{Let } \eta = a_1 y + a_2 y^2 + a_3 y^3 + \dots$$

$$\eta = \left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} \{ a_1 y + a_2 y^2 + a_3 y^3 + \dots \}$$

$$+ \left\{ 200.2 - 20 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} \{ a_1^2 y^2 + 2 a_1 a_2 y^3 + \dots \}$$

$$+ \left\{ 1104 - 60 \left( \frac{V^4}{V} \right)^2 \right\} a_1^3 y^3 + \dots$$

9

$$1 = [24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] a_1$$

$$0 = [24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] a_2 + [200.2 - 28(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] a_1^2$$

$$0 = [24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] a_3 + [200.2 - 28(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] 2 a_1 a_2 + [1104 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2] a_1^3$$

Therefore

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2}$$

$$a_2 = - \frac{200.2 - 28(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2}{[24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2]^2}$$

$$a_3 = \frac{2[200.2 - 28(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2]^2 - [1104 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2][24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2]}{[24 - 10(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})^2]^3}$$

Let  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ 

$$\gamma(t) = \frac{1 + 3 + \frac{25.2}{16} + \frac{3}{16} + \frac{1}{256}}{(\frac{7}{16})^3} - 1 \sim 9$$

$$m(\frac{1}{4}) = \frac{\frac{4}{9}}{(\frac{7}{16})^3} - 1 = \frac{\frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{3}}{1} - 1 = \frac{220}{81} - 1 = 2.75$$

$$g = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^x 4t^4 dt = \frac{2}{3} x^5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} &= (a, \gamma)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{a_1}{a_1} \gamma + \frac{a_2}{a_1} \gamma^2 + \dots \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= (a, \gamma)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \gamma + \frac{1}{2} \frac{a_2}{a_1} \gamma^2 + \dots \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \gamma^2 + \dots \right] \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} &= a_1^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{3}{2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} \dots \right] \\
 \frac{2}{3} d(\gamma^{\frac{3}{2}}) &= a_1^{\frac{3}{2}} \left[ \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{5}{2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{7}{2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} \gamma^{\frac{3}{2}} \dots \right] d\gamma \\
 q &= a_1^{\frac{3}{2}} \left[ t^{-\frac{3}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) + \frac{5}{2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} t^{-\frac{3}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) + \frac{7}{2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} t^{-\frac{3}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \dots \right] \\
 &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \left( \frac{a_1}{t} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \frac{1}{t} + \frac{3.5.7}{2.2.2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{1}{t^2} \dots \right] \\
 \log q &= \log \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \log \left( \frac{a_1}{t} \right) + \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \frac{1}{t} + \frac{3.5.7}{2.2.2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{1}{t^2} \\
 &\quad - \left( \frac{3.5}{2.2} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{a_1}{t} \right)^2 \frac{1}{t} \\
 &= \log \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \log \left( \frac{a_1}{t} \right) + \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{a_1}{a_1} \frac{1}{t} + \frac{3.5.7}{2.2.2} \left\{ \frac{a_1}{a_1} - \frac{3}{4} \left( \frac{a_1}{a_1} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{1}{t^2} \dots \\
 &= \log \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \log \frac{kT}{N^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}} \\
 &\quad - \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^2} \frac{kT}{N^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4} \\
 &\quad + \frac{3.5.7}{2.2.2} \left[ \frac{2 \left\{ 200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^2 - \left\{ 1144 - 60 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\} \left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}}{\left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^4} - \frac{2}{7} \frac{\left\{ 200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^2}{\left\{ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^3} \right] \frac{1}{N} \\
 &\quad + \left( \frac{kT}{N^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right)^2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4 + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ln P &= \left\{ \ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{7}{2} \ln \frac{kT}{h^2 \sqrt{V}} \right\} + 7 \ln V \\
 &- \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{kT}{h^2} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^2} \\
 &+ \frac{3.57}{2.22} \left( \frac{kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{V}{V^0} \frac{12; 200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 2 \cdot 11.44 - 10 \frac{V}{V^0} \cdot 28 - 10 \frac{V}{V^0} \cdot 28}{7 \left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^3} \\
 &= \left\{ \ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{7}{2} \ln V - \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{kT}{h^2} \frac{V}{V^0} \frac{200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^2} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \frac{3.57}{2.22} \frac{kT}{h^2} \frac{V}{V^0} \frac{104384.28 - 22187.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 31248 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{7 \left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^3} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{PV}{kT} &= 2 \frac{h^2}{kT} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ 1 - 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] + 7 \\
 &- \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{kT}{h^2} \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[ \frac{200.2 - 11.8 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^2} + 40 \frac{V}{V^0} \frac{200.2 - 28 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^3} \right] \\
 &+ \frac{3.57}{2.22} \left( \frac{kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{V}{V^0} \left[ \frac{115073.92 - 22187.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + 31248 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^3} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + 60 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{104384.28 - 22187.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + 31248 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left[ 24 - 10 \left( \frac{V}{V^0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^3} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

2. 1. 1.

$$\log q = \log \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{kT/V}{A^2(1+10\frac{V^2}{V_0^2})} - \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{2.52 - 2.5\frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{1.4 - 1.5\frac{V^2}{V_0^2}} \frac{kT}{A^2} \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}$$

$$F = -kT \log \frac{(2\pi kT)^{3/2}}{h^3} - kT \log j(T) - kT \\ - A^2 \left\{ 1.2 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) - 0.5 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right)^2 \right\} - kT \left[ \log 2\pi V + \log V + \log 2 \right]$$

$$P = - \frac{\partial F}{\partial V} = - \frac{A^2}{V} \left[ 2.4 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) - 2 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right)^2 \right] \quad \frac{2.4}{\frac{V}{V_0^2}}$$

$$+ kT \left[ \frac{1}{V} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{4}{V} - \frac{1.25 \cdot \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \cdot \frac{1}{V}}{2.4 - 1.5 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right)^2} \right]$$

$$F = 2A^2 \frac{1}{V} \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \left[ 1 - 1.2 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \right] + \frac{kT}{V} \left[ 2 + 3.5 \frac{\frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{2.4 - 1.5 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right)^2} \right] \\ = 2A^2 \frac{1}{V} \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \left[ 1 - 1.2 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \right] + \frac{kT}{V} \frac{8.4 - 2.5 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{1.2 - 0.75 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}$$

In  $T = \text{constant}$ ,

$$V \frac{\partial P}{\partial V} = -2A^2 \frac{1}{V} \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) + 5 - 8.4 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) - \frac{kT}{V} \frac{8.4 - 2.5 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{1.2 - 0.75 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}$$

$$+ \frac{kT}{V} \frac{[-4.0 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \{ 1.2 - 1 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \} - \{ 2.4 - 0.75 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \} \{ -1.0 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \}]}{\{ 1.2 - 0.75 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \}^2}$$

$$-V \frac{\partial P}{\partial V} = 2A^2 \frac{1}{V} \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \left[ 5 - 8.4 \left( \frac{V^2}{V_0^2} \right) \right] + \frac{kT}{V} \left[ \frac{8.4 - 2.5 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{1.2 - 0.75 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}} - 10 \frac{\frac{V^2}{V_0^2}}{1.2 - 0.75 \frac{V^2}{V_0^2}} \right]$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{V}{P} \frac{\partial P}{\partial V} &= \frac{2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^{-1} \left( 5 - 1.4 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right) + \frac{kT}{\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{14 - 20 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2} - \frac{20 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left( 12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right)^2} \right)}{2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^{-1} \left( 1 - 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right) + \frac{kT}{\Lambda^*} \frac{14 - 20 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}} \\
 &= \frac{5 - 1.4 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{1 - 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2} \left( 1 + \frac{kT}{\Lambda^*} \frac{1 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4}{2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2} \right) \frac{\frac{14 - 20 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2} - \frac{50 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left( 12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right)^2}}{5 - 1.4 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2} - \frac{14 - 20 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$E = -T^2 \frac{\partial(F/T)}{\partial T}$$

$$= E^{\text{int}} + \frac{3}{2} kT - \Lambda^* \left\{ 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 - 0.5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4 \right\}$$

$$+ kT^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left( \ln f \right)$$

$$= E^{\text{int}} + \frac{3}{2} kT - \Lambda^* \left\{ 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 - 0.5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4 \right\}$$

$$+ kT^2 \left[ \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{T} - \frac{3.5}{2.2} - \frac{100.2 - 14 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left\{ 12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right\}^2} \frac{k}{\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4 \right]$$

$$= E^{\text{int}} + 3kT - \Lambda^* \left\{ 1.2 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 - 0.5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4 \right\}$$

$$- \frac{3.5}{2.2} \frac{50.05 - 7 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left[ 12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right]^2} kT^2 \frac{k}{\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4$$

$$C_V = \frac{\partial E}{\partial T} = C_V^{\text{int}} + 3k - \frac{3.5}{2.2} k \frac{100.2 - 14 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2}{\left[ 12 - 5 \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^2 \right]^2} \frac{kT}{\Lambda^*} \left( \frac{V}{V^*} \right)^4$$

## 4.2

### Thermodynamic Properties of Gas at High Temperature and Pressure

#### 气体在高温高压下的热力学性质

高温高压气体的热力学性质研究完成于 1954 年。现存文稿包括：(1) 题为“High Density Gas”（高密度气体）的论文前期的理论推导，(2) 题为“Lennard - Jones and Devonshire Theory for Dense Gas”（稠密气体的林纳德——琼斯与德文沙理论）实为本研究最终所采用的半经验状态方程和热力学函数的理论推导，共 13 页，(3) 收集的原始数据及其处理，(4) 论文手稿共 8 页等。这里只选印论文手稿之首页及林纳德——琼斯与德文沙理的推导 11 页。

论文正式发表于《Jet Propulsion》（喷气推进学报），Vol. 25, Part, Issue 9, 471 - 478 (1955)，其主要部分后来被作者编入《物理力学讲义》（科学出版社，1962），构成该书之第九章“液体与稠密气体”的部分内容。论文中所讨论的高温高压气体状态正是工程技术上的凝聚炸药爆震所能达到的几十万大气压、几千度 K 的状态。这个问题既重要又困难。Fickett (菲克特) 和 Davis (戴维斯) 在 1979 年的专著《Detonation》（有中译本：《爆轰》，原子能出版社，1988 年版）中曾提到“液体和固体炸药 CJ 点附近区域中气体的性质，人们知之甚少”。书中评价了被采用的三种方法，即：Kistiakowsky - Wilson (基斯切可夫斯基 - 威尔逊) 状态方程，Lennard - Jones - Devonshire 理论，和 Jacobs - Cowperthwaite - Zwisler (雅各布 - 科波威特 - 茨威斯勒) 理论，第二种理论也是一种 Lennard - Jones - Devonshire 理论，只是在混合模型上用 Monte - Carlo (蒙特 - 卡洛) 方法拟合。Fickett 和 Davis 正确地指出，第一种方法中 Kistiakowsky - Wilson 状态方程的缺点是压力随温度变化有物理上不合理的行为，并且状态方程中的参数需要用爆轰测量的结果来校准。

对第二种方法 Lennard - Jones - Devonshire 理论的评论是, 其优点是可以  
用非高压实验预测其中的参数, 而存在的缺点是在低密度范围下与实际符合  
不够好, 为此 Jacobs 在 1969 年做过改进。事实上早在 1955 年, 作者就已经  
在这篇短小的论文中对上述意见有所评论了。第一是, 从物理基础扎实的  
Lennard - Jones - Devonshire 理论出发来构筑状态方程, 避免了要用高压实验  
(爆轰) 本身来拟合其经验参数的方法。第二是, 状态方程的物理行为, 包  
括压力依赖于温度和压力依赖于密度的行为, 在大范围内与事实符合。作者  
在 1962 年开始在中国科学院力学研究所内指导的“高压气体性质的研究”  
课题, 也是循着这一路径方法开展研究的, 以期达到对炸药爆轰行为的理论  
预测。这里给出的是作者根据 Wentorf (温托夫) 等人对 Lennard - Jones - De-  
vonshire 理论的表格推导, 以及归纳成半经验状态方程的过程和计算用的作  
图表示。

If the molecules are assumed to be spheres of diameter  $D$ , then

$$b = \frac{\pi}{3} D^3 \quad (12)$$

### Thermodynamic Properties of Gas at High Temperatures and Pressures

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#### 1. Equation of States of Dense Gas

When the density of gas is high, it is well known that the simple equation of states for a perfect gas can no longer be expected to be valid. The most crude approximation to the equation of states for a dense gas is that of Van der Waals. If  $P$  is the pressure,  $v$  is volume per molecule,  $T$  the temperature, and  $k$  the Boltzmann constant, then the Van der Waals' equation is

$$(P + \frac{a}{v^2})(v - b) = kT \quad (1)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are two constants, small in mag. order. The constant  $b$  is usually simply identified as four times the volume of a molecule. At high temperatures, the density of gas can be large only if the pressure is very high. Then term  $a/v^2$  is not important in comparison with  $P$ , and Eq. (1) can be simplified into the so-called co-volume equation of states

$$P(v - b) = kT$$

Or we can write

$$\frac{Pv}{kT} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{a}{kT} \frac{1}{v} - 1} \quad (2)$$

Since  $v^*$  is a volume fixed by  $v^* = D^3$  however, because of the crude approximation in the Van der Waals' equation of states, neither Eq. (1) nor Eq. (2) can be expected to be sufficiently accurate for gas at very high temperatures and high pressures such as pressures products of detonation of condensed explosives.

etc.

Amount of gas = Dimensionless Temperature  
Pressure

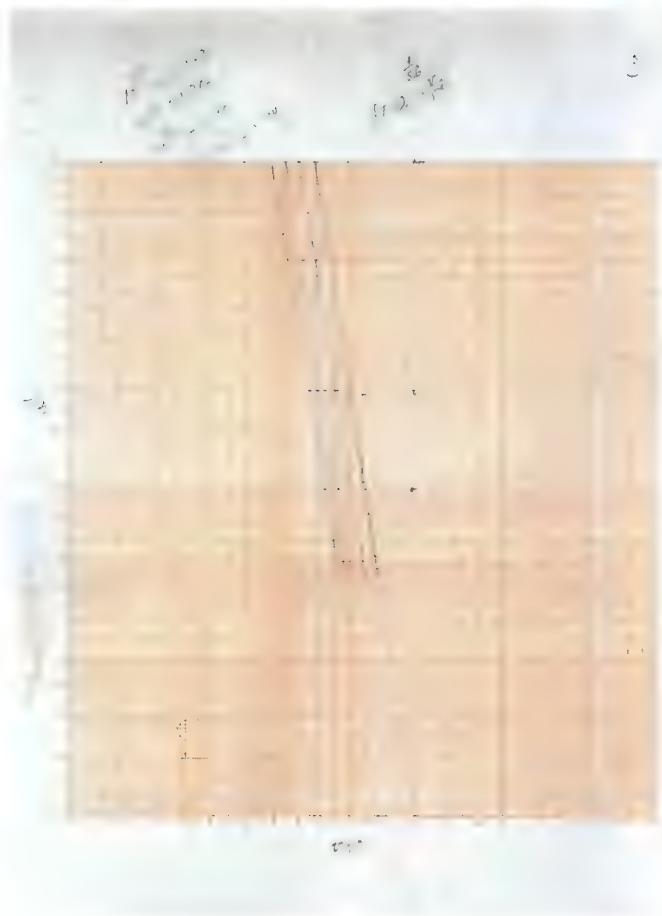
Calculate  $\frac{P}{kT}$  for Water, Radium, Silver Chloride, for the  $n^{\text{th}}$  18: 1490 (1950)

Values of  $\frac{P}{kT} - 1$

$\frac{P}{kT}$	0.22	0.405	0.5	0.72	0.98	1.25	1.28	1.62	2
$\frac{P}{kT} - 1$	0.867	0.364	0.107	0.0485	0.0899	1.0607	1.1314	1.2728	4.042
5	3.5676	21.47	2.657	6.963	4.373	3.705	3.253	2.595	2.125
7	27.074	16.897	11.312	6.281	4.259	3.720	3.223	2.084	2.076
10	20.584	12.207	9.373	5.657	4.087	3.591	3.242	2.673	2.305
20	12.735	8.998	6.866	4.688	3.576	3.211	2.920	2.406	2.175
50	7.717	5.969	4.910	3.674	2.905	2.652	2.444	2.122	1.815
100	5.733	4.620	3.902	3.000	2.462	2.267	2.104	1.849	1.657
150	4.476	3.760	2.892	2.076	1.777	1.655	1.543	1.319	1.062

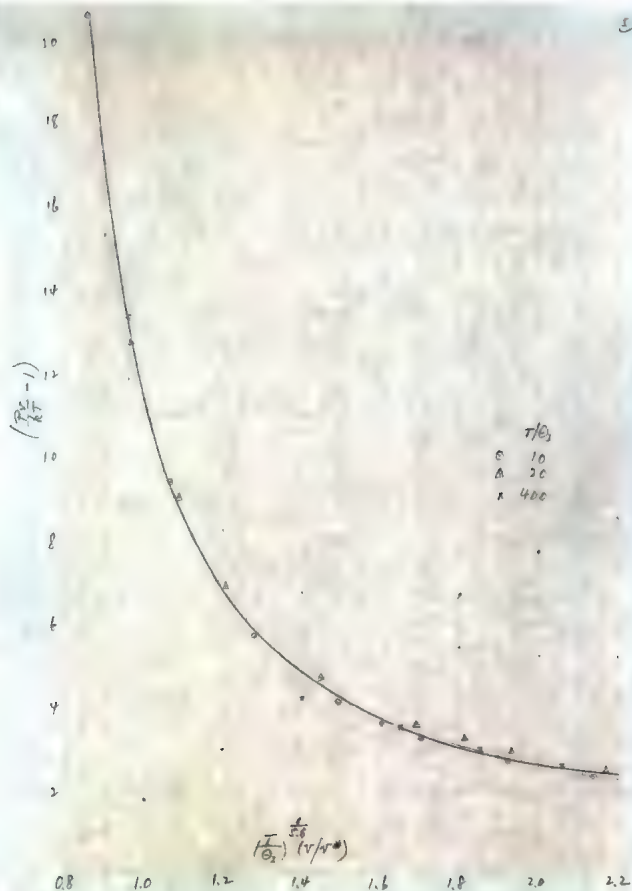






$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{1}{14}\right)$$

	1.517	0.764	0.707	0.845	0.789	0.67	1.024	0.708	0.410
1c	0.854	0.960	1.066	1.280	1.492	1.600	1.706	2.20	2.30
2c	0.956	1.086	1.207	1.409	1.690	1.811	2.01	2.172	2.44
3c									
4c									
5c	1.650	1.853	2.060	2.420	2.886	3.072	3.298	3.06	0





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$$T \ln \frac{1}{\frac{P_r}{RT} - 1} \quad \text{against} \quad \frac{T}{T_0} \cdot \frac{V}{V_0}$$

$$T_0 = 11, \quad \frac{T}{T_0} \cdot \frac{V}{V_0} = 1.468$$

$x$	$y$
0.822	0.0426
0.915	0.0771
1.028	0.1068
1.246	0.1766
1.453	0.2442
1.557	0.2724
1.661	0.2914
1.770	0.3040
2.076	0.434
2.286	0.491
2.490	0.547
2.582	0.574

$$T_0 = 70, \quad \frac{T}{T_0} \cdot \frac{V}{V_0} = 1.647$$

$x$	$y$
0.823	0.0785
1.049	0.1111
1.064	0.1456
1.397	0.2124
1.630	0.2796
1.750	0.3112
1.865	0.3424
2.100	0.4035
2.230	0.460
2.562	0.515
2.798	0.568

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$$T/O_2 = 50, \quad T'(G_2) = 1.920$$

x	y
1.087	0.1296
1.221	0.1675
1.357	0.2036
1.430	0.2760
1.900	0.3440
2.040	0.2770
2.172	0.409
2.444	0.471
2.712	0.531

$$T/O_2 = 00, \quad T'(G_2) = 2.154$$

x	y
1.220	0.1742
1.270	0.2160
1.522	0.2562
1.828	0.3333
2.132	0.406
2.288	0.4441
2.440	0.475
2.744	0.541

$$T/O_2 = 400, \quad T'(G_2) = 2.714$$

x	y
1.526	0.2676
1.727	0.3326
1.917	0.2860
2.204	0.477
2.668	0.563
2.862	0.604

$$y = ax - b$$

$$0.145 = 0.8a - b$$

$$0.6 = 2.8a - b$$

$$0.555 = 2a$$

$$a = 0.278$$

$$b = 0.8 \times 0.278 - 0.145$$

$$= 0.222 - 0.145 = 0.077$$

$$y = 0.278x - 0.077$$

$$\frac{Pr}{bT} = 1 + \frac{1}{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{G_2} \right)^{1.12} - 0.077}$$

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$$\frac{P_v}{kT} = 1 + \frac{1}{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right)} - 0.177$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial v} \right)_T = T \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_v - P$$

$$P = \frac{kT}{v} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right)} - 0.177 \right]$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \right)_v = - \frac{k}{v} \frac{\frac{1}{6} \cdot 0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right)}{\left[ 0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177 \right]^2}$$

$$(E - E_\infty)_T = - \int_v^\infty \left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial v} \right)_T dv = + \frac{kT}{6} \int \frac{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} d \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right)}{\left[ \dots \right]^2}$$

$$(E - E_\infty)_T = \frac{kT}{6} \frac{1}{\left[ 0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177 \right]}$$

$$\frac{(E - E_\infty)_T}{(1 - e^*)} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{(T/\Theta_2)}{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177}$$

$$(c_v - c_{v,\infty}) = \frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{\left[ \dots \right]} = \frac{1}{36} \frac{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right)}{\left[ \dots \right]^2}$$

$$\frac{(c_v - c_{v,\infty})}{k} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177}{\left[ 0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177 \right]^2}$$

$$H_{v,T} = (E - E_\infty)_T + (Pv - kT)$$

$$= \frac{kT}{6} \left[ \frac{1}{\left[ \dots \right]} + \frac{1}{\left[ \dots \right]} \right] = kT \frac{\frac{2/6}{0.278 \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_2} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right) - 0.177}}{\left[ \dots \right]} = H_{v,T}$$



$$(r_1 - r_{p_{\infty}}) = \gamma (r_0 - r_{v_{\infty}})$$

We have  $\frac{r_1 - r_{p_{\infty}}}{r_0 - r_{v_{\infty}}} = -\frac{F}{T^2}$

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left( \frac{r_1 - r_{p_{\infty}}}{T} \right) = -\frac{r_1 - r_{p_{\infty}}}{T^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F - F_{\infty} &= \frac{Th}{6} \int_T^{\infty} \frac{dT'}{\left[ 0.278 \left( \frac{T'}{G_2} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{T'}{V_2} \right)^{1/2} - 0.177 \right] T'} \\ &= Th \int_{(T/G_2)^{1/2}}^{\infty} \frac{dF}{\left[ 0.278 \left( \frac{T}{G_2} \right)^{1/2} T - 0.177 \right]} \quad F = F' \\ &= Th \int_{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}^{\infty} \frac{d\eta}{\eta [\eta - 0.177]} = \frac{Th}{0.177} \int_{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\eta - 0.177} - \frac{1}{\eta} \right] d\eta \\ &= \frac{Th}{0.177} \ln \frac{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2} - 0.177} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(S - S_{\infty})}{h} &= -\frac{1}{0.177} \ln \frac{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2} - 0.177} \\ &= -\frac{1}{0.177} \left[ \frac{1}{6} - \frac{\frac{1}{6} \cdot 0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2} - 0.177} \right] \\ &= -\frac{1}{0.177} \ln \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{6} \frac{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2}}{0.278 (T/G_2)^{1/2} (T/G_2)^{1/2} - 0.177}} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\frac{S-S_0}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{(0.278 + 6\sqrt{\frac{1}{1.2}}) - 0.177} = - \frac{1}{(1.177)} \left( \frac{1 - 0.278 \sqrt{\frac{1}{1.2}}}{(0.278 + 6\sqrt{\frac{1}{1.2}}) - 0.177} \right)$$

## 4.3

## Asymptotic Analysis of Some Integrals Connected with Calculation of Spectral Line Absorption Coefficient

## 关于谱线吸收系数的某些积分的计算

这个工作是1952年初进行的。现存文稿包括：(1) S. S. Penner (潘纳) 在1952年1月8日写给钱学森的便笺，要求找到一个计算谱线吸收系数的积分方法，(2) 钱学森为此用两种不同的数学方法进行的推导，共12页。这里只选印了其中一种方法的推导手稿，共5页。

谱线吸收系数的计算在定量光谱学上占有重要地位。定量光谱学是50年代末期被提出来的光谱学中的一个新领域，其标志之一是在1961年出现了一个新的学术刊物《Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer》(简称JQSRT)。其刊物主编就是在加州理工学院喷气推进中心(由讲座教授钱学森所领导)工作，并与钱学森合作过的S. S. Penner。钱学森回国后回顾那段历史时说到，Penner到喷气推进实验室最初的任务是对喷气推进发动机燃烧过程用光谱的办法进行实验探测。为了这个目的，必须把光谱学的物理原理能够推进到可以量化的程度，于是开展了包括对光谱吸收系数、发射率和辐射传输问题的研究。钱学森在他的《物理力学讲义》一书中的第13章“热辐射”中，反映了当时的基本考虑。在回国后他曾对“工程光谱学”的专门方向进行过倡导。钱学森认为光谱学要达到工程化，除了物理基础的部分之外，要在量化的计算上下功夫。这里所给出的是他应Penner的要求对同时有Döppler(多普勒)效应变宽、自然宽度和碰撞变宽条件下的谱线吸收线型的计算问题中的一个积分进行求解。原文未发表过。不过后来Penner在他的专著《Quantitative Molecular Spectroscopy and Gas Emissivities》(定量光谱学和气体辐射)，Pergamon(1959)中，将其结果收入，并指明这一结果是由钱学森首先得到的。实际

上 Penner 书中关于谱线吸收线型的计算引用钱学森的计算结果共有二处，其中只有公式 (4.53) 之推导在现存手稿中。线型的计算看似简单，实际上难度很大。这些计算工作曾有许多人的努力，其中包括 M. Born (玻恩) 的贡献。由钱学森给出的方法是简洁而有力的。他的手稿推导清晰易懂，可见其学术风格非同一般。这一计算的实际背景可参见上述 Penner 专著的四章。



$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{k-3i}{k^2+4k^2} = \frac{k-3i}{(k+2ik)(k-2ik)} \\
 & = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{k-2ik} + \frac{1}{k+2ik} \right) + \frac{ik}{2} \left( \frac{1}{k-2ik} - \frac{1}{k+2ik} \right) \\
 & = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1+ik}{k-2ik} + \frac{1-ik}{k+2ik} \right) \\
 & = \frac{k^2-2k^2}{(k^2+4k^2)(k+2ik)} = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1+ik}{(k^2+4k^2)(k+2ik)} + \frac{1-ik}{(k^2+4k^2)(k-2ik)} \right) \\
 & \rightarrow -\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1+ik}{\sqrt{1+4k^2+2ik}} e^{2ikx} dx + \frac{1-ik}{\sqrt{1+4k^2-2ik}} e^{-2ikx} dx \\
 & \quad + \frac{1-ik}{\sqrt{1+4k^2-2ik}} e^{-2ikx} dx \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4k^2-2ik}} \right) \\
 & = -\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{1+ik} e^{2ikx} dx + \left( \frac{1}{1+ik} e^{2ikx} + \frac{1}{1-ik} e^{-2ikx} \right) \\
 & = -\text{Real part of } \frac{1}{1+ik} e^{2ikx} + \frac{1}{1-ik} e^{-2ikx} \\
 & = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(1-2k^2+4k^2-2ik^2) - (1+2k^2-4k^2+2ik^2)}{1+4k^2} e^{2ikx} \\
 & = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1-2k^2+4k^2-2ik^2) - (1+2k^2-4k^2+2ik^2)}{1+4k^2} e^{2ikx}
 \end{aligned}$$

Add, and to any value.

$$\frac{1}{1+ik} = \frac{-ika^2}{1+(1+ik)a}$$

If we put  $t = \frac{a}{a} = at$ ,

$$\left( \frac{1}{1+ik} \right) \left( \frac{1}{1+ik} \right) = \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+ik}$$

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{k}}{2} \left[ \cos \beta k a^2 - \frac{\cos \beta k a^2 + k a^2 \sin \beta k a^2}{1+k^2} \right. \\ \left. - \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \frac{e^{-\frac{\omega^2 a^2}{2}}}{a} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots (2n-1)}{2^n} \frac{1}{a^{2n}} \sin^{2n+1} \beta \right]$$

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{k}}{2} \frac{1}{1+k^2} \left[ k \cos \beta k a^2 + \sin \beta k a^2 \right] \\ - \frac{e^{-\frac{\omega^2 a^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots (2n-1)}{2^n} \frac{\sin^{2n+1} \beta}{a^{2n}}$$

(see II),  $\omega \gg 1$ , and  $k$  any value

$$\frac{1}{1+ik} e^{ik a^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \left( \frac{1}{k} + i \right) \omega \\ \approx \frac{1}{1+ik} e^{ik a^2} \left[ 1 - \frac{e^{-\frac{(1+ik)a^2}{2}}}{\sqrt{k} (1+ik) a} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots (2n-1)}{2^n} \frac{1}{a^{2n}} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{k} + i = \tan \beta + i = \frac{1}{\cos \beta} \left( \cos \beta + i \sin \beta \right) \\ = \frac{1}{\cos \beta} \left( \cos \beta - i \sin \beta \right) = \frac{e^{-i \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \beta \right)}}{\cos \beta}$$

$$\frac{1}{1+ik^2 a} = \frac{\frac{1}{k}}{1 + \frac{1}{k} + i} = \frac{a}{\omega^2 \left( \frac{1}{k} + i \right)^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\left( \frac{1}{k} + i \right)^{2n+2}} = \frac{e^{2(n+1)\beta} - i \left[ (n+1) \pi + 2(n+1)\beta \right]}{e^{2(n+1)\beta}} \\ = - \cos^{2(n+1)\beta} e^{i 2(n+1)\beta}$$



$\chi_{\text{new}}$

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} \frac{a\omega}{\omega^2 + a^2} \left\{ \frac{\omega}{a} \cos 2a\omega + \sin 2a\omega \right\}$$

$$= \frac{a e^{-a^2}}{2\omega^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{2} \dots \frac{(2n-1)}{2}}_{n \text{ factors}} \frac{\cos^{2n+1} \theta \cdot (\cos 2(n+1)\theta)}{\omega^{2n}} \quad \text{for } \omega \gg 1$$

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} \frac{a\omega}{\omega^2 + a^2} \left\{ \frac{\omega}{a} \cos 2a\omega + \sin 2a\omega \right\}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-a^2}}{2a} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{2} \dots \frac{(2n-1)}{2}}_{n \text{ factors}} \frac{\cos^{2n+1} \theta \cdot (\cos 2(n+1)\theta)}{a^{2n}} \quad \text{for } a \gg 1$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{a}{\omega}$$

## 4. 4

## Emissivity of Diatomic Gases at Low Pressure

## 双原子气体在低压下的辐射

这项研究工作最早开始于 1950 年, 作者的手稿完成于 1951 年。现存文稿包括: 计算推导, 论文手稿, 论文打字稿(10 页), 及作为附录由 S. S. Penner (潘纳) 所写的手稿等。

这里发表的是作者于 1951 年所写的论文打字稿, 共 10 页, 稿上留有 S. S. Penner 阅读后在文稿中局部处提出的改进意见。Penner 对处理低压下双原子分子发射率计算给出的一个近似方法的手写稿, 题为 “Approximate Emissivity Calculation for CO at Atmospheric Pressure and 300 K” (一氧化碳在大气压和 300K 条件下发射率的近似计算), 这里未收录, 讨论的是同一个问题, 但 Penner 给出的是基于实验的一个经验公式。在此之前 Penner 和他的博士生 Ostrander (奥斯特兰德) 曾经给出过一个在低气压下, 谱线呈完全分立情况下的发射率的计算表格, 用的是数值方法。在钱学森这一初稿中提出的方案, 是基于对前人发射率计算公式中的 Bessel 函数做了渐近展开, 以及用 Euler - Maclaurin 方法计算转动量子数的求和, 数学方法的简洁有力是非常明显的。这三方面的工作最后综合成为一篇文章 “Emission of Radiation from Diatomic Gases . III. Numerical Emissivity Calculations for Carbon Monoxide for Low Optical Densities at 300 K and Atmospheric Pressure ”

(双原子气体分子的发射率. III. 在 300 K 和大气压条件下具有低光学密度的 - 一氧化碳发射率的数值计算), 发表在《J. Appl. Phys.》(应用物理学报), Vol. 23, No. 2, 256—263 (1952), 署名人 S. S. Penner、M. H. Ostrander, H. S. Tsien。查阅了本手稿并与最后发表之文章对比来看, 人们可以发现, 虽然这篇论文是三个人的工作, 但三个人分别的学术贡献和作用仍然可以体察出来。而钱学森的学术风格鲜明地跃然纸上, 这也正是他所提倡的物理力学方法论的一种体现。

ROUGH DRAFT

30 July 1951

I.

## EMISSION OF DIATOMIC GASES AT LOW PRESSURES

## I. INTRODUCTION

Emissivity calculations for diatomic gases from spectroscopic data were developed recently by S. S. Penner (Ref. 1). His method is based upon the use of an average absorption coefficient for the entire fundamental and higher vibration-rotation bands. The method is thus effective when there are extensive overlapping and broadening of the spectral lines, and hence is accurate for gases at high total pressures and temperatures. At low pressures, the lines do not overlap and a different approach to the problem should be made. Penner and M. H. Ostrander (Ref. 2) have computed the emissivity of carbon monoxide for the case of non-overlapping lines by a numerical procedure, using spectroscopic data obtained recently by Penner and D. Weber (Ref. 3). The results are in excellent agreement with the emissivity determined experimentally by W. Ullrich and H. C. Hottel (Ref. 4). The amount of numerical work involved is, however, rather heavy. It is the purpose of the present paper to develop an approximate but convenient formula for calculating the emissivity of diatomic gases for the case of non-overlapping lines.

## II. FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

If  $T$  is the temperature,  $\theta$  the characteristic temperature,  
 $\nu$  the wave number,  $\nu^*$  the characteristic wave number,  $P_\nu$  the spectral  
 absorption coefficient at  $\nu$ ,  $p$  the partial pressure of the emitting gas,

$\omega$ : wave number  
 $\nu$ : frequency  
 $\lambda = hc/\nu$

and  $L$  the optical path length, then the emissivity  $\epsilon$  of the gas under the specified conditions is

$$\epsilon = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\nu^2 \{1 - e^{-P_0 h \nu}\}}{e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1} d\nu \bigg/ \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\nu^2 d\nu}{e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1} \quad (1)$$

If only the fundamental vibration-rotational band is considered, the absorption coefficient  $P$ , is given by <sup>at low temps. when the rotational band is negligible</sup> <sup>approx. model</sup>

$$P_{\nu} = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{j=-\infty}^{+\infty} \left[ \frac{S_{j \rightarrow j+1}}{(\nu - \bar{\nu}_{j \rightarrow j+1})^2 + b^2} + \frac{S_{j \rightarrow j-1}}{(\nu - \bar{\nu}_{j \rightarrow j-1})^2 + b^2} \right] \quad (2)$$

where  $b$  the half-width of the spectral lines, and  $S_{j \rightarrow j'}$  are the integrated absorptions for the lines centering on the wave numbers corresponding to the indicated transitions. The  $S_{j \rightarrow j'}$  can be computed in turn by using the results of J. R. Oppenheimer (Ref. 5). As

$$S_{j \rightarrow j+1} = \frac{N_T \epsilon^2 \pi}{3 \pi c Q} \frac{\bar{\nu}_{j \rightarrow j+1}}{\nu^2} j e^{-\frac{E_{j+1}}{kT}} F \cdot G \quad (3)$$

and

$$S_{j \rightarrow j-1} = \frac{N_T \epsilon^2 \pi}{3 \pi c Q} \frac{\bar{\nu}_{j \rightarrow j-1}}{\nu^2} j e^{-\frac{E_j}{kT}} F \cdot G$$

where  $N_T$  is the number of emitting molecules at temperature  $T$  per unit volume per unit pressure,  $\epsilon$  the effective charge,  $\mu$  the reduced mass,  $c$  the velocity of light,  $Q$  the complete internal partition function.

$E_j$ 's are the internal energy levels given by

$$E(j, j) = h B [j(j+1) - j(j-1)] \quad (5)$$

$$E(j, j) - E(0, 0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x^* \\ y &\approx B e / \omega e = \frac{1}{2} (D e / B e)^{1/2} \\ S &\approx D e / B e \\ \theta &= h c \omega^* / h = h \nu^* / k \end{aligned}$$

Note approximations



previous section is very heavy. A short formula, however, can be developed: First of all, when the lines are separated from each other, each line can be considered alone, independent of others. Furthermore, the value of the factor outside of the bracket in the numerator of Eq. (1d) can be approximated by its value at the center of each line. Thus according to S. S. Fennar (Ref. 6)

$$\xi = \frac{f}{\pi^2} \left( \frac{g}{T} \right)^4 \sum_{j=1}^N \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\frac{D_j}{2} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} dv \quad (9)$$

where the  $\nu_j$ 's are the absorption coefficient due to the particular line with transitions as indicated. The integrals can be easily evaluated (Ref. 6) and are given by the modified Bessel functions  $I_0$  and  $I_1$ :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\frac{D_j}{2} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} dv = 2\pi \left( \frac{h}{v_j} \right)^2 \xi_j e^{-\frac{D_j}{2} \left( \frac{h}{v_j} \right)^2} \left[ I_0 \left( \frac{D_j}{2} \right) + I_1 \left( \frac{D_j}{2} \right) \right] \quad (10)$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\frac{D_j}{2} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{v}{v_j} \right)^2}} dv = 2\pi \left( \frac{h}{v_j} \right)^2 \xi_j e^{-\frac{D_j}{2} \left( \frac{h}{v_j} \right)^2} \left[ I_0 \left( \frac{D_j}{2} \right) + I_1 \left( \frac{D_j}{2} \right) \right] \quad (11)$$

$$\xi_j = \omega_{j-1}^{e-1} / 2\pi b \quad (12)$$

and

$$\eta_j = \int_{j-1}^{e-1} \xi_j / 2\pi b \quad (13)$$

A further approximation can now be made. The magnitude of  $\xi$ 's and  $\eta$ 's are generally quite large if the product  $pl$  of pressure and optical path length is of the order of unity. Therefore, the asymptotic values of the Bessel functions can be used. Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-P_{j-1}^{e-1} \xi_j} d\xi_j \approx \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{P_{j-1}^{e-1}}} \quad (14)$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-P_{j-1}^{e-1} \eta_j} d\eta_j \approx \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{P_{j-1}^{e-1}}} \quad (15)$$

By substituting Eqs. (14) and (15) into (9), the emissivity is calculated as a sum over  $j$ .

To carry out the sum over  $j$ , one can use the Euler-Maclaurin summation formula (Ref. 7), which evaluates the sum by an integral. First, due to the smallness of  $\xi$ ,  $\eta$ , the following expansions, including terms up to the square of  $\eta_j^2$ , are approximate.

$$\frac{\eta_j^{e-1}}{\eta_j^2} = 1 - 2\eta_j - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\eta_j^2 \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (2 - \xi) \eta_j^2 \sim 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \eta_j^2 - 10 \\ & \eta_j^2 \sim 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \eta_j^2 - 10 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\sqrt{F} = 1 + \frac{4}{3}j - \frac{3}{2}j^2 \quad (17)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sqrt{F}}{e^{\frac{1}{2}j}} &= e^{\frac{1}{2}j} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}j}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots} \quad (18) \\ &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}j}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots} \quad (19) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{2}j}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}j}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots} \quad (20)$$

The corresponding quantities for the transitions  $j-1 \rightarrow j$  can be very easily obtained from Eqs. (16) to (20) by replacing  $j$  with  $-j$ . Because of this property of symmetry, the sum of terms from the transition  $j \rightarrow j-1$  and the transition  $j-1 \rightarrow j$  for every  $j$  is a function of  $j^2$  only. Thus, after appropriate canceling of linear terms,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{2}j}} &= \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{2}j}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{2}j}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2}j + \frac{1}{8}j^2 - \frac{1}{6}j^3 + \dots \right) \quad (21) \end{aligned}$$

where



$$A = \frac{N_T \epsilon^2 \pi}{3 \mu e^2} \frac{T}{\theta} \quad (24)$$

A is thus a constant independent of temperature and pressure. The function  $f$  is simply deduced from the position function Q as given by Eq. (8):

$$f = 1 - \gamma \left( \frac{1}{6} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{T}{T} \right) = \frac{d/2}{(e^{d/2} - 1)} - \frac{\gamma \frac{T}{T}}{(e^{d/2} - 1)^2} \quad (25)$$

Therefore  $f$  is a quantity close to unity. The function g is computed from the expansions given in Eqs. (16) to (26). It is

$$g = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{e^{d/2}} - \frac{d/2}{1 - e^{d/2}} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{1 - e^{d/2}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{T}{T} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d/2}{T} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{T}{T} \quad (26)$$

The Euler-Maclaurin formula can be now employed to evaluate the sum in the emissivity  $\epsilon$ . The resulting integral over  $j$  extends from 1 to  $\infty$ . But this range can be made to be from 0 to  $\infty$  by simply deducting the approximate value of the integral from 0 to 1 from the extended integral. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j^2} e^{-\frac{j^2 d}{2}} \left( 1 + \gamma \left( \frac{1}{6} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{T}{T} \right) \right) - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{j^2} e^{-\frac{j^2 d}{2}} \left( 1 + \gamma \left( \frac{1}{6} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{T}{T} \right) \right) dj \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{j^2} e^{-\frac{j^2 d}{2}} \left( 1 + \gamma \left( \frac{1}{6} \frac{T}{T} + \frac{T}{T} \right) \right) dj - \frac{5}{12} \\ &= \Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \left(\frac{2T}{d}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{2} \frac{T}{T} \right] - \frac{5}{12} \end{aligned}$$

The  $\Gamma(\frac{3}{2})$  has the numerical value of 1.225. Finally then the expression

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the emissivity for the case of non-overlapping lines is

$$\epsilon = \frac{30}{\pi^0} \left( \frac{f}{T} \right)^5 e^{-b/T} f(l) f(x, z) \left[ r \left( \frac{z}{b} \right) \left( \frac{2T}{b} \right)^{3/4} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{2} \frac{KT}{b} f(l, f, \frac{f}{T}) \right) - \frac{f}{12} \right] \sqrt{\frac{1}{\rho^0} \left( \frac{dL}{\rho^0} \right)} \quad (25)$$

where  $f$  and  $g$  are functions given previously in Eqs. (23) and (24).

Since the value of  $f$  is nearly unity and the factor before  $g$  in Eq. (25) is small, a good approximate equation for the emissivity is

$$\epsilon \approx \frac{30}{\pi^0} \left( \frac{f}{T} \right)^5 e^{-b/T} r \left( \frac{z}{b} \right) \left( \frac{2T}{b} \right)^{3/4} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\rho^0} \left( \frac{dL}{\rho^0} \right)} \quad (26)$$

#### IV. APPLICATION TO CARBON MONOXIDE

For carbon monoxide, the molecular constants are

$$\theta = 3066.9^\circ \text{K}$$

$$\nu^0 = 2142.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\gamma = 0.000895$$

$$\lambda = 0.0091$$

$$x = 0.00620$$

The value of  $A$  computed from the measurements of Palmer and Weber (Ref. 3) is

$$A = \frac{23.95}{23.35} \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

They have also determined (Ref. 8)  $b$  to be  $0.077 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at one atmosphere of total pressure.

According to the approximate equation (26), the emissivity at  $T = 300^\circ \text{K}$  and a total pressure of one atmosphere

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1.62 \times 10^{-3} \sqrt{pL}}{1.577} \quad (25)$$

where  $pL$  is in atm-cm. By using the more exact equation (25), the emissivity is

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1.606}{1.647} \times 10^{-3} \sqrt{pL} \quad (26)$$

The difference between the approximate value and the more exact value is quite small. The comparison between the computed emissivity and the measurements of Ullrich and Hottel (Ref. 4) is shown, in Fig. 1. The agreement is quite satisfactory up to  $pL$  of approximately 10.

## REFERENCES

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# 工 程 科 学

## 5.1

### Engineering and Engineering Sciences

#### "工程和工程科学"的报告提纲

作者于1936年从师于美国加州理工学院的力学大师 Theodore von Kármán (冯·卡门)，1939年取得博士学位后留校成为 von Kármán 的得力助手，在 von Kármán 的指导和影响下，从事应用力学的研究，围绕高速飞行的“声障”和“热障”以及薄壳结构的稳定性等问题发表了一系列经典文献；接着，他又为火箭技术的发展开创了理论研究。1945年作者被美国国防部聘任为由 von Kármán 任团长的科学咨询团的团员，为美国空军提供长远发展的意见，同年5月随同团长 von Kármán 考察德、英、法等国的航空事业，特别是德国火箭技术的发展情况。

1947年初，36岁的钱学森已经成为近代力学、航空和火箭技术优秀的世界一流科学家，并且进入了美国麻省理工学院年轻的正教授的行列。作者已在十余年的研究和教学的丰富实践中，深切领悟了以 Prandtl (普朗特) von Kármán 为代表的应用力学学派的精神，并熟谙了这一学派的研究手法。作者剖析了第二次世界大战期间工业特别是武器的飞速发展的根源，认识到：在本世纪初，由德国 Göttingen (哥廷根) 学派的 Felix Klein (克莱因) 所倡导的科学工程相结合从而推动工业技术发展的思想已经得到了充分的体现；事实上，这种结合和推动已经成为决定国力的强盛和人民生活福利水

平的关键。作者敏锐地认识到在自然科学和工程技术之间已经形成了一个独立的科学体系，那就是工程科学；在 20 世纪的前 40 年，应用力学正是这一工程科学的代表，而到了 40 年代，工程科学面临着火箭技术、电子技术和核技术等更广阔的工程技术范围内的发展，因而也正面临科学与技术紧密结合的需求和时机；为了促进工程技术和社会经济的发展以及国力的强盛，需要提倡这种工程科学的发展。

1947 年夏，作者回国探亲，先后访问了浙江大学、交通大学和清华大学，以“工程和工程科学”为题，就工程科学的内涵和特点、研究内容和方法、当前的研究领域、特别是工程科学在中国发展的重要性等方面做了讲演。

这里选印的是作者在回国之前准备讲演而写的提纲，共有 2 页。

# Engineering and Engineering Sciences

Lecture to be delivered at July 24, 1987

1)

During the past decade great advances in engineering have been achieved mainly through the successful adaptation of extensive engineering research results. a) Aeronautics b) Industrial applications c) Basic engineering research

2) What is engineering research? a) Fundamental research

b) Basic research

3) This Klein's concept of relation between science and engineering. — Historical situation between science & eng.

4) What is the characteristics of the ~~work~~ ~~aim~~ of "applied science"? "applied science" "applied science"

5) Preliminary investigation to eliminate impossible ~~research~~ problems and mode of attack. Examples

- i) Rocket fuels
- ii) Newton's laws

Prejudice

6)

a) Preliminary investigation to determine whether or a proposal is feasible.

- i) Long range rocket
- ii) New Modes of Propulsion.

7) To judge the feasibility of differentiation in engineering projects. is it better of ~~science~~ ~~science~~

8) ~~science~~

Basic

a) Understanding of phenomena in the most basic sense:

- i) Turbulence
- ii) Thin Air Theory

b) Anticipation of future developments

- i) Supersonic flow
- ii) Hypersonic flow

5) Methods. Not just theory

- a) One equation systems theory and experiment
- b) Higher & lower order systems
- c) Higher mathematical Methods
  - i) Analysis
  - ii) Partial Diff. Equation
  - iii) Machine computation

not only theory included but interaction

6) The Principal Areas of investigation in these sciences

- a) Fluid mechanics
- b) Electricity — thermal shock
- c) Plasma
- d) Combustion
- e) Electronics
- f) Solid State — material
- g) Nuclear energy
- h) Biological sciences & engineering application.

7) The Importance of long term in China.

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## 5.2

### Engineering and Engineering Sciences

#### 工程和工程科学

这是发表于1948年的“Engineering and Engineering Sciences”（工程和工程科学）一文的手稿，共有24页。这篇论文的内容是以作者在1947年夏天回国时给浙江大学、交通大学和清华大学的学生所做的同名讲演为基础的。作者在讲演中系统地介绍了工程科学的内涵、工程科学家的任务以及作为一名工程科学家需要接受什么样的教育和训练。

作者在引言中，首先回顾了本世纪上半叶科学技术的研究愈益成为决定国家和国际事务中的关键这一震撼人心的历史事实，其中最富戏剧性的实例，乃是第二次世界大战时期雷达和原子弹的发展，对世界民主力量的伟大胜利做出了卓越的贡献。科学和技术的研究不再是无计划的个人活动，任何一个大国的政府都认识到，这种研究实为增强国力和国民福利的关键，因而严密地加以组织和控制，使之成为现代工业不可分割的组成部分。作者意识到纯科学的发现与工业应用之间的距离已经很短，而留长发的纯科学家和理短发的工程师之间的差别也非常之小，他们之间紧密合作的实际需要产生了一个新的职业，那就是工程科学家，他们在纯科学与工程之间架起桥梁，运用基础科学知识解决工程问题。

开创这种工程科学的研究，在历史上可以溯源到20世纪初德国Göttingen哥廷根大学的伟大的数学家F. Klein（克莱因），他所开创和领导的学派中产生了像L. Prandtl（普朗特）、Theodore von Kármán（冯·卡门）和S. Timoshenko（铁木辛柯）等那样杰出的工程科学家。20世纪20年代中，Timoshenko和von Kármán相继移居美国，把这一学派的传统风格带到美国，并通过他们的学生广泛传播到美国的著名大学和研究单位。到了40年代，美国著名的理工院校已经充分认识到理工合一的教育原则的必要性并付诸实施。

作者 1947 年回国的讲演就是向祖国的著名大学宣传工程科学的重要性以及理工合一的教育原则，充分反映出作者急盼祖国繁荣昌盛的赤子之心。

1949 年祖国得到解放，作者归国报效心切，历尽美国政府的阻挠和迫害，1955 年终于回到祖国的怀抱。回国以后，作者继续提倡发展工程科学，并且积极开展培养工程科学家的工作。首先，在回国的第二个月里，就受命创建中国科学院力学研究所。作者当时的建所模式不只限于力学，还包括了自动控制、工程经济、物理力学等，实际上是按照工程科学的框架来建所的。1956 年起，作者和钱伟长一起创办了三期力学研究班；1958 年，作者和郭沐若、严济慈、华罗庚等一起组建了科技大学，开始大批培养工程科学家的工作。1957 年，作者在《科学通报》上发表了题为“论技术科学”的论文，按国内的习惯将“工程科学”改称为技术科学。论文进一步全面地论述了技术科学的范围、方法论以及培养和组织等各个方面。70 年代，哈尔滨军事工程学院迁往长沙，组建国防科技大学（初期称长沙工学院）。时任国防科委副主任的钱学森又将这一理工结合的教育思想贯彻于该校的建校方针之中，再次强调在工科院校中要加强基础理论的教育，使培养出来的学生能适应现代科技的飞速发展。80 年代末，钱学森根据他一生从事科学研究和科学管理的切身感受，提出培养“科技帅才”的观点。他认为，为了建设“四个现代化”，在科技队伍的顶层，需要有科技帅才。他们不仅要有雄厚的自然科学理论知识、丰富的工程实践经验，而且要有社会科学和哲学的修养，要文理相结合。

从他提倡工程科学的 1947 年到今天，整整半个世纪过去了。历史发展的实践充分地证明了，一个国家的国力和国民福利的强大和技术科学的发达程度之间存在着息息相关的联系，由此看出，作者倡导的发展工程科学或技术科学的思想是多么先进和重要。今天我们重读这篇文章，仍然感受到许多新的启示。

22 "Science of Aerodynamics, Department of Aeronautical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology"

1. Introduction  
2. Theoretical Foundations  
3. Experimental Methods  
4. Applications

The science of aerodynamics is a branch of physics which deals with the motion of fluids and the forces acting on them. It is a subject of great importance in the design of aircraft and other vehicles which move through the air. The study of aerodynamics is divided into two main branches: theoretical aerodynamics and experimental aerodynamics. Theoretical aerodynamics is concerned with the development of mathematical models which describe the flow of fluids around objects. Experimental aerodynamics is concerned with the measurement of the forces and moments acting on objects in a fluid flow. The two branches are closely related, and the results of theoretical studies are often verified by experiment. The science of aerodynamics has a long history, dating back to the time of the ancient Greeks. It was not until the late 19th and early 20th centuries, however, that it became a distinct scientific discipline. This was due to the development of the theory of fluid mechanics and the invention of the wind tunnel. The science of aerodynamics has since become one of the most important branches of engineering, and it has played a major role in the development of modern aircraft and other vehicles.

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This is a collection of papers by Qian Xuesen, who is a pioneer in the field of aerodynamics. He is a Chinese-American engineer and scientist. He was born in China in 1910, and he spent most of his life in the United States. He was a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and he was also a member of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. He was a professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and he was also a professor at the University of California, Berkeley. He was a leading expert in the field of aerodynamics, and he was one of the most influential scientists of his time. He was also a pioneer in the field of space exploration, and he was one of the first people to propose the use of rockets for space travel. He was a very important figure in the history of science and engineering, and his work has had a major impact on the world.

— making the research so important to-day? The answer to the question is the rate at which the modern industries are forced to develop due to national and international competition. At this rapid rate of development, research must be kept abreast with the actual immediate application of the scientific knowledge. Perhaps, nothing is so dramatic as an illustration as the recent development of radar and nuclear energy. That is a wonderful development of radar and nuclear energy, which is due to the victorious conclusion of the World War II. It is a fact that we now have an established fact. Now here research has brought the best of the same science of physics through practical engineering and to successful application in warfare in the short interval of a few years. The distance between a pure scientific fact and practical application is now very short. In other words, the gap between a day-trained pure scientist and a short-trained practical engineer is very small indeed, and a clear road has been opened for the successful development of the industry.

This need for close cooperation of the pure scientist and the practical engineer produced a new profession — the engineering scientist. The engineering scientist is the one who bridges the gap between the pure science and the engineering. They are the men who apply the basic scientific knowledge to the engineering problems. The function of the pure scientist is to

decides what the engineering scientist can do, what he has got, in engineering. And then what kind of education and training he needs in order to do the job assigned to him.

### Contributions of a Engineering Scientist to Engineering Development

The contributions of an engineering scientist to engineering development can be briefly stated as follows in effect both in manpower and in money. The engineer is asked to do a careful and general analysis of the problem or task to find out 1) whether the <sup>engineering</sup> problem is at all feasible 2) if feasible, what would be the best way to solve it, the physical and finally 3) if a certain process is adopted, what is the cause of failure and what would be the remedy. It is evident to any one that if an engineering scientist can fulfill these assignments then the cost and time in engineering and development is to a large extent eliminated. All his effort and money can then be concentrated on the best approach to the best method of attacking <sup>the problem</sup> to give the best chance of success.

It might be argued nevertheless, that these assignments assigned to the engineering scientist are really the same as a problem in engineering. What is the ~~real~~ <sup>real</sup> engineering scientist can do which an engineer cannot do? The answer to the question is that as the engineering problem becomes more and more complex, there is a need for a scientist.



conclude. We are sure that he is a very good pilot. He enters the problem of the probability of a good pilot. He has to have three kinds of basic instrument. The second is in performance. He structural efficiency and his sharpness is lower at high speeds. The rocket motor performance is he will do it when the rocket motor has test data. In the test of all things, he will detect when the above man has data. The rocket motor is lower at high speeds. He will do it when the high speed structural testing for data. He is sure, on that, he will not be surprised. These are not by good engineering judgment, by the application of the law of it. It is not the skill of solving differential equations. He is sure, the calculated range of the rocket. If he can see the test rocket motor data, he is, the basic practical analysis of the rocket motor, of the rocket motor. He is sure, he will be the highest thrust loading ratio. He is sure, the test rocket motor design of the shape of the rocket motor is an advantage, he will have a very large range that can be used by a rocket.

The formula of the probability of a good pilot is an assumption that we have motor performance, test structural efficiency and test rocket motor shape are lower to the rocket. But the real situation is not so easy. The rocket motor will find that while previous systems in shape that the shape of the propellant can be predicted is within 10%, accuracy.





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Kind of calculations

If he does <sup>not</sup> he will find there a <sup>great</sup> <sup>number</sup> of <sup>other</sup> <sup>people</sup> <sup>who</sup> <sup>are</sup> <sup>not</sup> <sup>at</sup> <sup>all</sup> <sup>interested</sup> <sup>in</sup> <sup>the</sup> <sup>same</sup> <sup>thing</sup> <sup>as</sup> <sup>you</sup> <sup>are</sup>.

There is a strong tendency for the volume of the demand curve to be smaller than the supply curve, and this is due to the fact that the demand curve is more elastic than the supply curve. This is because the demand curve is more responsive to changes in price than the supply curve is. This is due to the fact that the demand curve is more elastic than the supply curve is.

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Technical Committee of June 1905, the following cost of the various items:

Standard Plant £ 320,000

Cable Route Between Plant 6,000,000

Electricity Plant 12,000,000

The Standard Plant is the most expensive item in spite of the fact that it must be built with the best quality for the fireable materials.

Now when the preliminary analysis by the engineering committee shows the Standard Plant will be the most expensive item in the General Power system, it is not surprising that the Standard Plant will be the most expensive item in the system.

Standard Plant £ 320,000,000

Other 192,000,000

Total 512,000,000

Standard Plant £ 48,000,000

Other 1,912,000,000

1,960,000,000

Standard Plant 48,000,000

Other 1,912,000,000

Total 1,960,000,000

The cost of the various items is not the same as the cost of the various items in the system.





civil engineers. The wind forces ~~also~~<sup>which</sup> ~~small~~ have the same period as always in phase with the oscillation of the roadway and therefore can build up the wind side of oscillation to enormous magnitude. It is now then lost by incorporating damping and by stiffening the bridge to a point <sup>where</sup> the <sup>natural</sup> frequency the failure can be avoided. This is the trouble for the design of the new bridge.

Here again, the services of an engineering scientist is able to clear out a most perplexing engineering problem, and can be used to avoid further difficulties in an engineering design.

#### Illustration — Basic Research in Engineering Design

In the above discussion, it might be concluded that the problems an engineering science are individual problems and the engineering scientist is to deal with particular ones without much generalized scheme. This impression is however not correct. During the multitude of problems in the current development of engineering, there are phenomena which occurs repeatedly in various branches of engineering. These phenomena can then be abstracted into the distinct scientific problem, the engineering scientist has to solve and formulate into individual problems to research. The result of such research will then not only deal with one field of engineering, but to all of them. This is the basic research in engineering science, through which the greatly diversified engineering activities are united.

Naturally, such basic research in engineering sciences was connected to the great industrialization. F. Mies is the first person the met. It came shortly before the World War I. His school has had not such one next experience with this as to our German and I. Timoshenko. At that time, the main field of engineering activities had to deal with mechanics. It was natural that the basic research in engineering sciences was simply called "applied mechanics" (ingenieurhafte Mechanik). However, the non-mechanical fields of engineering were covered to subjects which are not treated in the applied mechanics as first concerned by the German school. Let us then divide the

(case 1) activities of basic research in engineering sciences into three categories:

- 1) Research in the field which are not within the old boundary of applied mechanics;
- 2) Research in field which are near the old boundary of applied mechanics, and
- 3) Research in the fields which are within the old boundary of applied mechanics. It will be profitable to examine these fields of research in greater detail.

~~conclusion~~ ~~the~~ ~~to~~ understand what is the character of basic research in engineering sciences, ~~its~~ <sup>its</sup> ~~comparative~~ <sup>comparative</sup>

and relations with different engineering problems





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4.  $\frac{1}{x^2} = x^{-2}$  Derivative of  $x^{-2}$  is  $-2x^{-3} = -\frac{2}{x^3}$

6 11105

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

E

## A. Airplane

The airplane is a vehicle which is designed to fly in the atmosphere. It is a machine which is capable of moving through the air at high speeds. The airplane is a complex machine which is designed to fly in the atmosphere. It is a machine which is capable of moving through the air at high speeds. The airplane is a complex machine which is designed to fly in the atmosphere. It is a machine which is capable of moving through the air at high speeds.

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Invent p. 16a 1













Letter

1. I have been thinking of you a great deal lately, and wondering how you are getting on. I hope you are well and happy. I have been very busy lately, but I have managed to find some time to write to you.
2. I have been thinking of you a great deal lately, and wondering how you are getting on. I hope you are well and happy. I have been very busy lately, but I have managed to find some time to write to you.

<u>Geostat. Ergebnisse</u>				
Lage und Größe der in der Tabelle angegebenen Punkte mit ihren Koordinaten				
Ordnung	Zahl	Wegpunkt	Obere Temperatur	Lage des Punktes
		in m. über	in m. über	in m. über
Fluss	Haupt	1.166	6.770	1.1
	1.167	2.371	7.500	1.1
	1.168	16.25	10.210	1.1
	1.169	9.42	1.530	1.1
	1.170	6.28	6.276	1.1
Boden	1.171	1.275	1.530	1.1
	(25' + 10' + 15')			
	1.172	2.62	1.730	1.1
Boden	1.173	2.00	1.730	1.1
	1.174	3.000	5.700	1.1
Mittelwert				

## 其 他

### 6. 1

#### 化学流体力学

##### 6. 1. 1

#### Gas Turbine Cycle for the Manufacture of Nitric Oxide

#### 用燃气透平制造一氧化氮

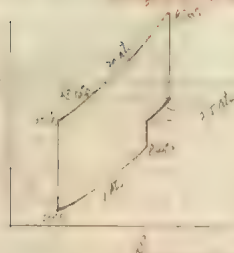
作者从喷气推进技术的研究中得到启示,认为航空发动机实为一高效的化学反应器,因为它具有体积小、反应快、冷却快、因而效率高,而且可以精确地加以控制等优点,可以运用航空发动机所依据的气体动力学原理,设计制造出高效的化工反应器。作者为了探讨上述设想的可行性,选择了一种比较简单情况,即利用燃气透平来生产一氧化氮。为此,作者考虑了几种可能的热力学循环过程,并进行了估算。作者又考虑到一氧化氮的产率与燃烧所得到的高温之间有着密切的联系,因而提出了一个求取最优温度的问题。

为了进行上述分析,作者还收集了多种气体的化学平衡常数和热力学性质的数据表。

由此可以看到,作者早年的专业特长虽属航空和火箭导弹等国防科技领域,但他那时就注意到这些尖端科技有可能转为民用,从而推动民用工业以至整个国民经济的发展。作者后来在广泛的科技经济领域发表了许多精辟的见解是与那时的思想一脉相承的。

这里选印作者未发表的3页分析部分的手稿,工作时间不详,估计在1953年以前。

Problema 1.1.1. para la  
manipulación de líquidos viscosos



1) Head required for circulation  $= 1.33' = \frac{10}{8}$

$$\frac{P}{F} = \frac{4}{1} = 4$$

2) Discharge  $= 100 \text{ gpm}$  Flow rate  $= 100$

Flow rate  $= 100 \text{ gpm} = 1.67 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$  Flow rate

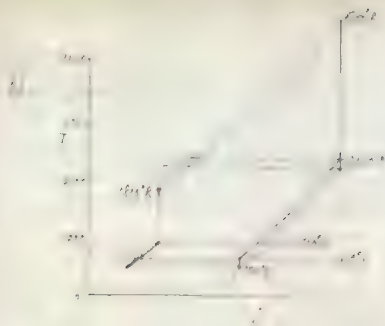
Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss

Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss

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Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss

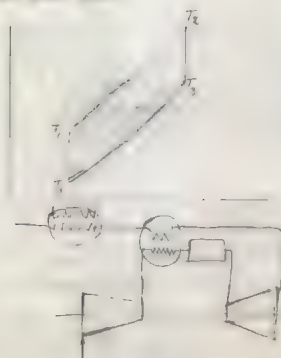
Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss  $= 40 \text{ ft}$  Head loss



c)  $\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{1}{\tau} (T_{\infty} - T)$

$$T_{\infty} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\tau}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\tau}}$$

d)  $\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{1}{\tau} (T_{\infty} - T)$



2. Open Problem

If  $T_2 = \text{chosen}$  to be the first value of  $T_2$ , then

$T_2$  and  $T_3$  are the first values

the heating from  $T_3$  to  $T_2$  is constant. If  $T_2$  is a constant, then it is known and known for  $H_2$ , but the direction of  $H_2$  is given by  $T_2$ . So an optimum  $T_2$  exists.

3.

### 6.1.2

#### On the Possibility of Manufacturing Chemicals by Gas Dynamical Processes

用气体动力学过程制造化工产品的可能性

1953年6月,作者写成题为“On the Possibility of Manufacturing Chemicals by Gas Dynamical Processes”(用气体动力学过程制造化工产品可能性)的手稿,但未发表。

如果说在上面一篇手稿中作者为了想说明有可能利用气体动力学原理来生产化工产品,而只是对用燃气透平制造一氧化氮的可能性作了一个估算,那么这一篇手稿则更为完整地阐述了利用气体动力学原理生产化工产品的可能性。

作者认为当时研究超声速气体动力学的理论和实验的水平已经相当高,不仅清楚了解了高速气流的性质,而且可以为指定的工程目的而实现对高速气流的控制。因此,可以运用气体动力学原理为反应气体创造高温和高压的反应条件,使之实现快速的反应而生成所需的化合物,然后,为了不让化合物在缓慢的冷却过程中进行逆反应,而让介质通过迅速的膨胀和冷却,把已生成的所需化合物“冻结”下来,成为产品。作者介绍了两种可能的途径,一种就是上面一篇手稿中所设想的利用透平机的压缩和膨胀过程,作者称之为气体透平过程;另一种则采用先是击波后接膨胀波的过程,作者称之为气波机过程,造成比前一种过程更为迅速的造成高温高压然后转为冷却冻结的过程。作者认为气波机过程比气体透平过程更迅速和更有效,而且实现的可能性更大,并且建议,研究的第一步是做击波管实验,以便为确定优化条件和设计制造流程取得必需的反应数据。

在手稿的末尾,作者将 S. S. Penner(潘纳)的题为“Shock-Tube Experiments for the Production of Chemical Compounds”(生产化合物的击波管实验)的短文用作附录(文中的少量修改是钱写的)。从 Penner 的短文

中可以清楚看出，首先建议用气体动力学途径生产化工产品的正是钱学森，想法来自于钱学森对喷气推进和物理力学的研究。作者回国建立了中国科学院力学研究所后，成立了化学流体力学的研究组，后来又扩大成立了相应的研究室。

这里选印了他的手稿，连同作为附录的 Penner 的短文，共有 15 页，包括：正文 11 页，文字完整连贯，而页码次序有所疏漏；以及附录 4 页。



1

On the Feasibility of Manufacturing Chemicals by Gas-diffusion and Processes

H. L. Brown

David and Lucile Packard Foundation  
Palo Alto, California  
June 1963

Dr. J. J. Pomeroy has previously submitted a brief memorandum concerning an experiment in the field of gas-diffusion experiments for the production of chemical compounds. The purpose of this note is to extend and to elaborate on the above and to indicate the feasibility of manufacturing chemicals by gas-diffusion processes.

1. Recent Progress in Gas-diffusion

Gas-diffusion is a process of mass transport which is well known at high pressures. It is a field of research which has been active during the last twenty years and is now becoming more and more important. Gas-diffusion has been used for the separation of gases, for the production of chemical compounds, and for the study of the kinetics of chemical reactions. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years.

The requirements of a gas-diffusion process are that the gas must be at a high pressure, that the gas must be at a high temperature, and that the gas must be at a high concentration. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years. The study of gas-diffusion has been one of the most active fields of research in the last twenty years.

2 Effect of Temperature on the Chemical Equilibrium and its Rate of Approach to Equilibrium

The equilibrium concentration is a product of the rate constants and is not affected by changing the temperature. A decrease in temperature results in a decrease in the rate of approach of the equilibrium. Instead of such a chemical reaction becoming a rapid equilibrium, the high temperature and pressure will favor the production of the chemical.

It is known that when a system is brought into equilibrium, because the approach to equilibrium takes a long time, the rate of approach to equilibrium may be so slow and the time to reach equilibrium may be so long that the mixture can be kept at a constant temperature for a long time. The rate of approach to equilibrium is a function of the temperature of the mixture. In fact the reaction rate decreases very rapidly with decreasing temperature.

3 Principle of Le Chatelier's Principle for the Chemical Equilibrium

With the effect of temperature and pressure on the chemical equilibrium, the principle of chemical production favored by high temperature and low pressure can be formulated in very simple terms. The reaction must be carried out at high temperature and low pressure not only to increase the rate of approach to the desired product but also to obtain the reaction. There is that the equilibrium will be shifted in the direction of the heat reaction. The heat reaction is favored at high temperature and low pressure. The rate of approach to equilibrium is also the rate of approach to the desired product. The rate of approach to the equilibrium at high temperature and low pressure and can be

separated out by the conventional processing methods.

How can the high temperature and high pressure be achieved by gasdynamic processes? This can certainly be achieved by isentropic compression, if  $P_0$  is the pressure before compression,  $P_1$  the pressure after compression,  $T_0$  the temperature before compression and  $T_1$  the temperature after compression, then

$$\frac{T_1}{T_0} = \left( \frac{P_1}{P_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} \quad (1)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the ratio of the specific heats. Equation (1) is obtained on the assumption of perfect gas and constant specific heats. This relation is plotted in Fig. 1 for various values of  $\gamma$ . It is seen that large temperature ratio can be obtained if the pressure ratio is high. For instance, with  $\gamma = 1.2$ , in the range from 600°K to 2400°K, the pressure ratio required is less

than unity, which can be accomplished by expansion of the gas. Conversely, rapid cooling can be accomplished by expansion of the gas. This can be done by expansion through a De Laval nozzle. If the microphone 3 diameter quadruples before expansion and the microphone 4 diameter quadruples after expansion, and if  $P_0 = 10$  atm, then the ratio of speed of gas at the exit of the nozzle to the speed of sound in the gas at the inlet of the nozzle is then

$$\frac{V}{a_0} = \sqrt{\frac{P_0}{P_1}} = \sqrt{\frac{P_0}{P_0/16}} = 4 \quad (2)$$

Thus if the temperature ratio is 4, and  $\gamma = 1.2$ , the pressure ratio required is  $P_1/P_0 = 1/4$ . Hence expansion is definitely required. Since the flow of gas at the entrance to the De Laval nozzle is very small, the average flow of it may be taken to be around 1500 g/sec. Then if the length of the nozzle is 4 inches or 10 cm, the time for passage of the gas is  $1/1500 \times 1000 = 0.67$  sec. During this time, the gas is cooled from say 2400°K to 600°K, the rate of cooling is then

$$\frac{2V}{\lambda_{01}} = \frac{2.6}{2.3} = 1.13043$$

$$\frac{2-L}{\lambda_{01}} = \frac{0.7}{2.3} = 0.3043$$

$M_j$	$M_j^2$	$M_j^2 - 1$	$\frac{h_j}{h_1} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{01}} \frac{h_j}{h_1} (M_j^2 - 1)$	$1 + \frac{2L}{\lambda_{01}} (M_j^2 - 1)$	$\frac{T_j}{T_1}$		
1	1	0	1	1	1		
2	4	3	4.391	8.391	1.527		
3	9	8	10.43	20.43	2.280		
4	16	15	17.956	28.56	3.217		
5	25	24	28.130	41.30	4.647		
6	36	35	40.515	55.65	6.371		
7	49	48	55.261	70.61	8.189		

5

810.00 °K/sec. This is a dead very rapid cooling.

Quenching can be also achieved by the sudden change in pressure, or extremely rapid expansion, resulting at each case a pressure wave goes at great velocity through the material. If  $M_0$  is the Mach number at the end of the instrument 1 and 2 are quantities before the shock wave reaches the specimen.

$$\frac{t_2}{t_1} = 1 + \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} (M_0^2 - 1) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left[ 1 + \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} (M_0^2 - 1) \right] \left[ 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} (M_0^2 - 1) \right] \frac{1}{2} \quad (2)$$

for  $M_0 = 1.3$

Since what we are plotted is  $T_2$  vs  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  and  $T_1$  are based upon the difference in temperature of perfect gas and constant at the point of the specimen, high pressure and high temperature can be achieved if the specimen is under a large

Quenching cooling can be obtained by an expansion wave, where the equilibrium relation of Eq. (1) holds. Expansion waves are known to be rare, but their shock waves are very much less rare in the case of a Javal-type. It is possible even higher cooling ratios than that possible in the Javal-type are possible.

#### 4. Expansion Process

How can the process of expansion be achieved? It is possible to expand a gas by a sudden change in pressure, or by a sudden change in volume, or by a sudden change in temperature, and these can be done in a number of ways. The process of expansion can be achieved by a sudden change in pressure, or by a sudden change in volume, or by a sudden change in temperature, and these can be done in a number of ways.



at ground level;

approximately 1%  $\text{NO}$ .

Recent day aircraft turbojet engines have a air flow <sup>rate</sup> as high as 300 lbs per sec. & 6000 bhp turbine at 15,000 ft. per hour. At 15,000 ft. this means an engine will burn 13,000 lbs of air per day. At 15,000 ft. this means an engine will burn 13,000 lbs of  $\text{NO}$  per day, or 60 tons of fixed nitrogen per day. An important byproduct of the gas turbine process is the surplus power generated. In a machine of the size indicated, the surplus power may be as high as 15,000 bhp.

The essential differences between the <sup>indicated</sup> gas turbine process for  $\text{NO}$  production and the conventional gas turbine power plant are:

- 1) High temperature of the combustion product
- 2) Excess oxygen in the gas turbine

The conventional gas turbine fails to produce more oxide in any appreciable concentration simply because the lack of these characteristic "kiss of fire" design features, however, introduce engineering problems such as cooling of the engine nozzle and turbine blades. However these problems do not seem to be insurmountable in light of the present knowledge of high temperature <sup>design</sup> and high speed flows.

### 5. Wave Engine Process

To use shock waves and other wave waves the known can be carried out a rough device called shock tube. This apparatus does has several forms and is described by N. L. Davidson and T. L. Larrington\* two studies. It has been found that very high temperature can be obtained by

\* T. Larrington, "Photographic Observation of the Rate of Dissociation of Nitrogen Dioxide behind a Shock Wave" Ph.D. Thesis, California Institute of Technology, 1952.

## Pulse

their ends as already documented by H. Karsner, *q. of the Cornell University*.

A shock tube is simply a cylindrical vessel provided with diaphragms or valves at the ends. These valves are closed and closed at controlled intervals. Consider the case of NO production again. The sequence of events in a shock tube can be depicted as that sketched in Fig 5. As a first figure shows both ends of the tube open with the left side of tube connected to the low pressure exhaust vessel and the right side of tube connected to the fresh air supply. The fresh air is already heated up, say, 600°K by heat exchanger. The fresh air at low pressure, say atmospheric, is flowing from right to left. The tube is now then changed. When the fresh air reaches the left end of the tube, the valve at that end closes. The compression of air will then produce a compression wave which travels on from left to right. When the compression wave reaches the right end, the right end valve closes. The compression pressure is shown in Fig 5b. When the right end valve closes, it is slightly before that, the left end valve is closed again, but now there is a very high pressure center. Then a very shock is sent from the left end towards the right and compression the fresh air close in the tube to a very high pressure and temperature. This is shown as (c) in Fig 5. When the shock wave reaches the closed right end valve, it is reflected and the pressure and temperature of the gas behind the reflected shock is still higher. This is shown as (d) in Fig 5. When the reflected shock, there is in left end of tube, the left end of the tube is disconnected with the high pressure source and

<sup>4</sup> E. L. Fisher, S. C. Liu and A. Karmaliyev, *J. Appl. Phys.*, 32, 1972 (1962)







to check tube experiments. There is no need of cooling for a continuous flow. The experiments can be performed with a simple tube with diaphragms and thermocouples. The instrumentation should be such as to allow the analysis of the progress of chemical reaction, and the adjustment and the measurement of concentration of the various molecules.

If the desired chemical compound is a product of chemical equilibrium, then the upper limit of the yield can be determined as a function of the temperature and pressure at the end of the reaction in the closed tube. Thus a basic estimate of the feasibility of making a chemical product from desired chemicals can be made. The product of interest is an example. If the desired chemical is a reactive intermediate, one must have first some experimental data concerning its reaction with the elements of the tube described. The preceding discussion is preliminary. Theoretical analysis can answer the estimation for yield. These theoretical work then should be tested and modified to finally give a specifications for the design of pilot plant.

## Appendix

### SHOCK-TUBE EXPERIMENTS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL COMPOUNDS

S. S. Penner

(April, 1953)

During the last few years, shock-tube experiments have become a popular research tool for studies of gas properties at very high temperatures (A. Kautrowitz) and for quantitative measurements of very fast chemical reactions (N. Davidson and others).

A proposal for practical utilization of the high temperatures and very great rates of heating and cooling attainable in shocks <sup>expansion and relaxation waves</sup> has been made by H. S. Tsien. Briefly, it is proposed to investigate the chemical compounds which can be produced by passing <sup>expanding (and relaxing) waves</sup> shocks of controlled strengths through pure gases or (reactive) gas mixtures. It is apparent that the number of possible reaction products formed in pure gases or in gas mixtures is practically unlimited. Preliminary remarks concerning the production of important chemicals are summarized in the following paragraphs.

#### A. Hydrazine

Hydrazine offers attractive possibilities both as a fuel in bipropellant rocket engines and as a monopropellant or gas generant. The price of hydrazine in lots of 450 pounds has recently been reduced from \$5.25 per pound to \$3.15 per pound. \* For large-scale applications in commercial peace-time transportation devices the cost would

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\* Chemical and Engineering News, vol. 31, pp. 880-881, March 1953.

have to be reduced by at least a factor of ten before hydrazine could be considered to be competitive with gasoline. Several processes for large-scale manufacture of hydrazine are now under consideration. Some basic work on the production of hydrazine from ammonia, by using a glow discharge, has been described recently.<sup>4</sup> The fraction of  $\text{NH}_3$  converted to  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  was found to be  $\sim 0.02\%$  under optimum conditions and corresponds to the production of 30 g of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  per Kw. hr. at the cathode end of the discharge tube, a pressure of 5 mm of Hg, and a volume flow rate of 4.56 cc/sec at S.T.P. Although the results are encouraging, a great deal of additional work remains to be done before the discharge tube can be used commercially.

The work of Devins and Burton has established the fact that  $\text{NH}_3$  can be converted, by using a suitable energy input, either to  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  and  $\text{H}_2$  or to  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$ . The particular experimental conditions required in a mock tube for the optimum production of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  (which is itself unstable with respect to  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2$ , and  $\text{H}_2$ ) must be determined experimentally. It is suggested to perform preliminary experiments with pure  $\text{NH}_3$  and with mixtures of  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  (1 mole of  $\text{N}_2$  to 4 moles of  $\text{NH}_3$  would correspond to the appropriate stoichiometric proportions for the production of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$ ) utilizing shocks of varying

---

<sup>4</sup> J. C. Devins and M. Burton, paper No. 42 presented before the 123rd National Meeting of the American Chemical Society, Los Angeles, California, March 15 to 19, 1953.

strengths. The production of  $N_2H_4$  is to be followed by performing quantitative absorption measurements at wavelengths corresponding to one of the normal vibration frequencies of  $N_2H_4$ .

#### B. Production of Hydrocarbons

The production of hydrocarbons in shock tubes from natural gas, pure methane, or any other readily available hydrocarbon, can be studied by utilizing methods similar to the procedure described for  $N_2H_4$ . It is clear that the principal experimental problem is one of identification and quantitative analysis of the reaction products. The experimental studies will require the use of an infrared- or mass-spectrograph. Provided the necessary instrumentation becomes available, the analytical work can be pursued by personnel now available at the Guggenheim Jet Propulsion Center.

#### C. Production of Special Chemicals

The complete exploitation of the shock tube as a research tool or commercial device for the manufacture of special chemicals utilizing a vast number of different reactive chemicals, appears to be a problem of considerable magnitude. In view of our almost total lack of knowledge concerning quantitative kinetics data for complex reactions, it is not possible to predict the nature of the reaction products which

-4-

will be produced in shock tube experiments. On the other hand, it is to be expected that the experimental results will be of considerable importance for the development of modern chemical kinetics.

## 6.2

### Calculations on a Jet - Pump

#### 喷气射流泵

作者曾为美国军方写过一份带有密级的建议书，题为“Study of the Possibility of Using the Ejector Action of the Jet as a Source of Power for Driving the Propellant Pump”（采用射流的引射作用作为推进剂泵的动力源），书中建议应用射流引射的原理，利用火箭喷流引射空气，产生具有一定压力和流量的混合气体，作为驱动推进剂泵的动力源。这种动力系统包括从大气中获取空气的进口段，在混合段之前的一个火箭发动机以及混合段和扩压段等三个部分。

作者将上述用于推进剂泵的设想进一步具体化，形成一种新型的引射空气用的引射泵的方案，为设计这种引射泵进行了计算，写了题为“Calculations on a Jet - Pump”（喷气引射泵）的研究报告，原稿共有13页，何时写作和何处发表均不详。这里选印了手稿的前6页、一张引射泵的示意图以及有关泵的增压值的计算曲线图。

从喷气引射泵的示意图上可以看出，这种泵分为三个部分，即获取空气的锥形进口段、装有火箭发动机而使发动机喷出的废气与空气进行混合的混合段以及将混合气体减速而增压的扩压段。采用这种引射泵所能获得的增压主要取决于火箭发动机的推力。作者计算了不同推力下所获得的不同增压值，主要的计算结果由第2页的表1给出，该结果也被绘制成曲线



Definition of a vector

Let  $V$  be a vector space.

Then the following properties must be satisfied: (1)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (2)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ . (3)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (4)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ .

Example The set of all vectors in a plane is a vector space. Let  $V$  be the set of all vectors in a plane. Then  $V$  is a vector space. (1)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (2)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ . (3)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (4)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ .

Let  $V$  be the set of all vectors in a plane. Then  $V$  is a vector space. (1)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (2)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ . (3)  $V$  is a set of elements which are added to each other to form an element of  $V$ . (4)  $V$  is a set of elements which are multiplied by scalars to form an element of  $V$ .

The ... of ... = ... of ...  
 ... = 100 ... The ... of ...  
 ... in the ... with ...

Table 2

...	...	...	...	...
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

It is ... that the ... of the ...  
 ... under the ...

Then the following notations are used.

$\rho_0$  = density of free air

$\rho_1$  = density at the end of distance one and the beginning of range

$\rho_2$  = density at the end of range and the beginning of distance

$\rho_3$  = density at the end of distance

Furthermore, the following notations will be used

$b$  = barometric

$u$  = velocity of air

$u'$  = velocity of the exhaust gas relative to air

$u''$  = velocity of the air-exhaust mixture

$T$  = absolute temperature of the air

$T'$  = absolute temperature of the exhaust gas relative to air

$T''$  = absolute temperature of the air-exhaust mixture

$\sigma$  = density of the air

$\sigma'$  = density of the exhaust gas relative to air

$\sigma''$  = density of the air-exhaust mixture

$\gamma$  = ratio of specific heats for air

$\gamma'$  = ratio of specific heats for the exhaust gas relative to air

$\gamma''$  = ratio of specific heats for the air-exhaust mixture

$C_p$  = specific heat at constant pressure for air

$C_p'$  = specific heat at constant pressure for the exhaust gas

$C_p''$  = specific heat at constant pressure for the air-exhaust mixture

$L$  = heat content of air at the end of the distance one

$L'$  = heat content of exhaust gas at the end of the distance one

As we are dealing with air in the entrance zone we must assume, hence the above conditions can be calculated by considering the air as an incompressible fluid. Then

$$\rho_1 = \rho_2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho_0 \mu_1^2$$

$$T_1 = T_0$$

$$T_1 = T_0$$

So, to solve eq. (1), the conditions to be calculated are:  
 (1) the velocity of air at  $\frac{1}{2} l_1$ .

$$\rho_1 u_1 A + \rho_1 u_1' (A' - A) = \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' \quad (2)$$

(2) the velocity of air at  $\frac{1}{2} l_2$ .

$$\rho_1 u_1 A + \rho_1 u_1' (A' - A) = \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' + \rho_1' (A' - A) \quad (3)$$

(3) the continuity equation

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1 u_1 A + \rho_1 u_1' (A' - A) &= \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' + \rho_1' (A' - A) \\ &= \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' + \rho_1' (A' - A) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

By using the above conditions for a perfect gas. Then we can write as

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1 u_1 A + \rho_1 u_1' (A' - A) &= \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' + \rho_1' (A' - A) \\ &= \rho_2'' u_2'' A'' + \rho_1' (A' - A) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

So, using the above conditions, we have

$$u = \text{velocity of air} = \rho_1 u_1 A$$

$$u' = \text{velocity of the exhaust gas} = \rho_1' (A' - A)$$



The value of  $a_2'$  is the same as the one we found in

$$a_2' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{b_2}{a_2}} \quad (21)$$

If  $\gamma = 1$  then  $a_2' = a_2$  and

$$\frac{T_1'}{T_2} = 1 + \frac{\gamma^2 - 1}{2} \frac{a_2'^2}{a_2^2} \quad (22)$$

and 
$$\frac{b_2}{a_2} = \left[ 1 + \frac{\gamma^2 - 1}{2} \frac{a_2'^2}{a_2^2} \right] \frac{\gamma^2}{\gamma^2 - 1} \quad (23)$$

The value of  $a_2'$  is the same as the one we found in

Example Calculation In the numerical calculation we used

$$\gamma = 1.7$$

$$b_2 = 0.45 \text{ Btu/lb } ^\circ\text{F}$$

$$\gamma = 1.035$$

$$\gamma' = 1.035$$

$$a_2 = 15.7 \text{ Btu/lb } ^\circ\text{F}$$

$$a_1 = 5000 \text{ Btu/lb } ^\circ\text{F}$$

$$\gamma_1 = 1.035$$

$$\gamma_2 = 1.035$$

$$\gamma_3 = 1.035$$

The value of  $a_2'$  is the same as the one we found in the numerical calculation we used

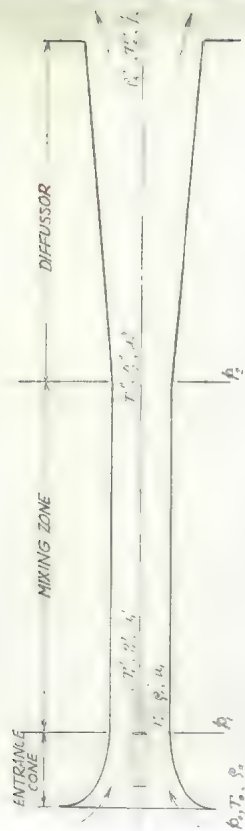


FIG. 1

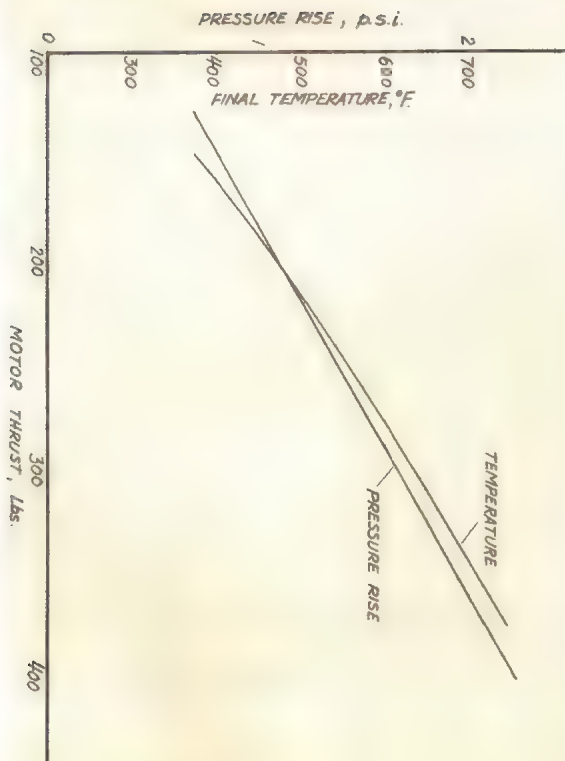


FIG. 2



### 6.3

#### Wind Mill for Power

#### 产生动力的风车

作者在回国前曾经对风力发电作过分析研究，在他没有发表的手稿中有一份材料，其封皮上所写的题目是“Wind Mill for Power”，中文即是“产生动力的风车”，工作时间不详。

这份材料共有 15 页，是作者对风车特性所做的分析计算，针对不同的风速、不同的高度，计算可能达到的效率。在作者给出的实际算例中，所取的高度包括从海平面起到海拔 8 千米以上，可以想见，这里作者是从他祖国的自然条件出发，密切关注着祖国发展能源的迫切需要。

这里选印手稿中的 10 页，即手稿的前 6 页有关计算公式的推导、3 页计算结果表格以及一张计算结果图。

作者在回国后继续进行风车发电的研究。他在 1957 年《科学记录》的创刊号上发表了“关于大型风力发电机”一文，提出了有关大型风车的新方案，即在风力大而风向改变不大的地方，建造一个风洞，把风车放在风洞里风速最大的地方，可以大大提高风车传动发电机的效率，这样的风车可称之为“风洞风车”。接着，他又派遣了一个研究组，深入新疆地区，进行了现场考察和实验。

在我国经济正在高速发展的今天，除了面临本来就很突出的能源短缺的问题，再加上严重的环境污染，越加说明作者所提倡的发展经济和干净的风力发电是多么的重要。

$A$  = axial inflow factor

$a'$  = rotational inflow factor

$r$  = radius

$R$  = radius of windmill

$B$  = no. of blades

$c$  = chord

$C_D$  = profile drag coefficient  $\bar{C}_D$

$C_L$  = lift coefficient

Some consideration of blade elements.

Consider a blade element of length  $dr$  at radius  $r$ .

$$dP = \frac{1}{2} \rho \Omega^2 r^3 (1+a')^2 / C_L \sin \phi - C_D \cos \phi \quad (12)$$

Let  $\phi$  be the angle of attack.

Then  $\phi = \alpha + \beta$ .

where  $\alpha$  is the angle of incidence

and  $\beta$  is the angle of twist.

is constant chord  $c$  along the blade;

Let  $\theta$  be the angle of the chord of the blade section,  $\alpha$

$$C_L = a_0 \sin(\theta - \alpha) \quad (1)$$

where the blade angle  $\theta$  is measured from the normal to the chord of the blade section.

Let  $H$  be the height of the blade section.

$$\tan \theta = \frac{H}{2cr} = \frac{hR}{r} \quad (2)$$

Let  $D$  and  $Q$  be the drag and lift coefficients, defined by the equations

$$D = C_D \pi R^2 \rho \Omega^2 R^2 \quad (3)$$

$$Q = C_L \pi R^2 \rho \Omega^2 R^2 \quad (4)$$

Let  $\lambda$  be the tip speed ratio

$$\lambda = \frac{V}{\Omega R} \quad (5)$$

Let  $\sigma$  be the power coefficient

then  $r = \frac{R}{\sin \theta}$

$$r = \frac{R}{\sin \theta}$$

$$\text{and } r = \frac{R}{\sin \theta}$$

as  $\theta$  varies from  $0$  to  $\pi$ ,  $r$  varies from  $\infty$  to  $0$  and back to  $\infty$ .  
Hence the solid is a sphere.

Let us find its volume.

$$\text{Let } r = \frac{R}{\sin \theta} \Rightarrow \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -\frac{R}{\sin^2 \theta} \Rightarrow dr = -\frac{R}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta$$

$$\text{So } r = \mu R \cot \theta, \quad dr = -\mu R \csc^2 \theta d\theta \quad (15)$$

Let us find the volume of the solid.  
Let us take a small element of thickness  $dr$  at a distance  $r$  from the origin.  
The volume of this element is  $dV = \pi r^2 dr$ .

$$dV = \pi r^2 dr = \pi R^2 \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta$$

$$\int_0^\pi \pi R^2 \frac{1}{\sin^4 \theta} d\theta = \pi R^2 \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{\sin^4 \theta} d\theta$$

$$I_2 = \pi R^2 \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \right]_0^\pi$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{1+\mu^2}$$

Let  $\mu = \tan \phi$ , then  $d\mu = \sec^2 \phi d\phi$

$$\tan \phi = \mu \quad (18)$$

and where  $\tan \phi = \frac{1}{\mu} \tan \psi \quad (19)$

After integration

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{1+\mu^2}$$

$$k_1(\mu) = \frac{1}{2} \mu \left( \sqrt{1+\mu^2} + \mu^2 \log \frac{\sqrt{1+\mu^2} + 1}{\mu} \right)$$

$$k_2(\mu) = \frac{1}{8} \left( (3+\mu^2) \sqrt{1+\mu^2} - \mu^4 \log \frac{\sqrt{1+\mu^2} + 1}{\mu} \right)$$

Substitution of the above in (17) gives

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{1+\mu^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{1+\mu^2}$$

as the above is a constant, the above is a constant

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\mu^2}} = \frac{1}{1+\mu^2}$$

... steps. Assuming ...

$$d_0 = 5.50$$

$$d_1 = 0.20$$

... are derived from the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= \frac{1+a'}{-a} \mu \\ D_c &= 5(1+a')^2 D_c' \\ Q_c &= 5(1+a')^2 Q_c' \end{aligned}$$

...

...

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{p} &= \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Since the maximum of  $\sin(q-1)$  occur at

$$\frac{1}{h^2} \left( \frac{v}{2r} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{i \frac{L}{2r}}^2$$

$$\text{or } \left( \frac{v}{2r} \right)^2 = \frac{h}{L}$$

Therefore the maximum occur

$$\left( \frac{v}{2r} \right)^2 = \frac{h}{L}$$

$$\frac{v}{2r} = \sqrt{\frac{h}{L}}$$

$$v = 2r \sqrt{\frac{h}{L}}$$

Time	Lat	Long	Alt	Dist	Dir	Remarks
10:00	26° 00'	120° 00'	0.15	0.3500	1.50	
10:10	26° 05'	120° 05'	0.15			
10:20	26° 10'	120° 10'	0.15			
10:30	26° 15'	120° 15'	0.15			
10:40	26° 20'	120° 20'	0.15			
10:50	26° 25'	120° 25'	0.15			
11:00	26° 30'	120° 30'	0.15			
11:10	26° 35'	120° 35'	0.15			
11:20	26° 40'	120° 40'	0.15			
11:30	26° 45'	120° 45'	0.15			
11:40	26° 50'	120° 50'	0.15			
11:50	26° 55'	120° 55'	0.15			

$$Q = \frac{4.5 \times 150}{258} = 92.7 \text{ N-m}$$

$$\frac{12.7 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi \times 0.36 \times 0.665 \times 0.1219} = 0.1001$$

$$\sigma = 12/2$$



$$\gamma = 0.027, \quad \delta = 0.002$$

	$\mu$			
	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8
$\frac{1}{2} C_0 K_1(\mu)$	0.04053	0.03958	0.03862	0.03760
$D'_c$	0.1460	0.1401	0.1345	0.1290
$-\frac{1}{2} C_0 K_2(\mu)$	-0.00563	-0.00593	-0.00622	-0.00650
$Q'_c$	0.00738	0.00708	0.00678	0.00648
$5 D'_c / 2 \mu^2$	0.00738	0.00708	0.00678	0.00648
$a$	0.00738	0.00708	0.00678	0.00648
$\frac{1}{2} C_0 K_1(\mu)$	0.04053	0.03958	0.03862	0.03760
$Q_c$	0.0411	0.0384	0.1002	0.1002
$\lambda^2$	0.0647	0.0907	0.1116	0.1320

$$C_2 = 0.615$$

$$\lambda = 1.812, \quad Q_c = 0.1001, \quad \gamma = 0.027\%$$

$$\text{Altitude} = 40,000 \text{ ft.}$$

$$D = 41.6 \text{ ft.}$$

$$h = 1.2, \quad J(h) = 0.1299, \quad n = 0.26$$

12

	$\mu$			
	1.2	1.8	1.9	2.2
$\frac{1}{2} \log(p-p-1) - 1$		0.049225	0.077650	
$\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{p}{p-1}$		0.074610	0.037671	
$D'_c$		0.0832	0.1361	
$\frac{1}{2} \log(p(p-h)J(h))$		0.011605	0.112055	
$-\frac{1}{2} C_0 K_2(\mu)$		-0.00653	-0.00684	
$Q'_c$		0.03005	0.18022	
$\sigma Q'_c / 2\mu^2$		0.004125	0.00412	
$\sigma$		0.002617	0.004130	
$\sigma Q'_c / \mu$		0.01031	0.02282	
$\sigma'$		0.01062	0.02131	
$\lambda$		1.8239	1.7625	
$C_c$		0.01863	0.0414	
$\bar{y}$		54.1	62.7	

$$A = 1.2, \quad n = 0.26, \quad C_c = 0.0145, \quad \sigma = 0.0041$$

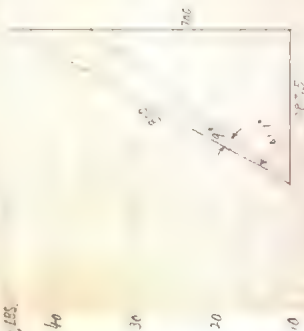
$$\sigma' = 0.0106$$

$$A =$$

THEORETICAL DRAG OF A WINDMILL  
GIVING 43.5 H.P. AT 700 FT/SEC.  
FLIGHT VELOCITY

DIAMETER OF WINDMILL = 3 FT  
NO. OF BLADES = 2  
MAX BLADE WIDTH =  $6\frac{1}{2}$  INCHES  
TIP MACH NUMBER = 0.7 to 0.8  
R.P.M. = 2,466

$\frac{V}{AD} = 5.69$   
MAX.  $C_L$  OF BLADE ELEMENT = 0.615



40,000

20,000

10,000

0

## 6.4

### Thermonuclear Power Plants

#### 热核电站

在 50 年代中期,人们对核电站的兴趣集中在裂变反应器的上,只有少量的文章讨论聚变反应器,但是作者当时已经敏锐地意识到,世界上裂变燃料的矿产资源极为有限,而聚变燃料相对地说却极大地丰富,研究和开发聚变能源有着光明的前景,应该把热核电站的研究提到日程上来。于是,作者从工程科学的角度探讨了热核电站的特性以及技术设计中的几个基本问题,诸如:热核反应速率,反应器燃烧室的冷却散热问题,燃烧室和气体透平、分离器、热交换器以及气体压缩机等组成的循环系统等等。作者在回国前不久完成了题为“Thermonuclear Power Plants”(热核电站)一文,并委托 Frank E. Marble (F·马勃) 将论文投送《Jet Propulsion》(喷气推进学报)。在作者回国后的第二年,即 1956 年,论文发表了。

这里选印上述论文手稿的前 3 页和后 3 页。

Thermonuclear Power Plants

(I)

Introduction1.1 Preliminary Discussion

The thermonuclear reaction we have in mind is



This reaction is singled out because of the availability of deuterium and the relatively high reaction rate. Since the mass of  $n^1$  is 1.008982, of  $H^2$  is 2.014735, and of  $He^3$  is 3.016977 (see cf. Kaplan, p. 232), each single event specified by (1) generates

$$2 \times 2.014735 - (1.008982 + 3.016977) = 0.002511 \text{ amu} \quad (2)$$

$$= 3.27 \text{ Mev} = 5.24 \times 10^{-6} \text{ ergs} = 5.24 \times 10^{-13} \text{ watt-sec.}$$

energy. Therefore  $2 \times 2.014735 = 4.029470$  gr. of deuterium gas will produce when completely "burned" into  $He^3$  and neutrons

$$5.24 \times 10^{-13} \times 6.024 \times 10^{23} \text{ watt-sec.}$$

$$= 3.15 \times 10^{11} \text{ watt-sec.} = 87700 \text{ kw-hr.}$$

Hence the energy production by the thermonuclear fusion of deuterium is

$$21,800 \text{ kw-hr./gr.} = \underline{9,870,000 \text{ kw-hr./lb.}} \quad (3)$$

The present rate of electric energy production in the United States is approximately 500,000 kw-hr. per year. Thus assuming a thermal efficiency of 25%, this annual energy can be supplied by burning approximately

$$\frac{1}{0.25} \times 5 \times 10^{11} \times 10^{-7} = 2 \times 10^5 \text{ lb.} \approx 100 \text{ tons of } D_2.$$

Now the relative abundance of deuterium and ordinary hydrogen is

roughly 1:7,000. Thus 100 tons of  $D_2$  means 700,000 tons of hydro- $^{18}O$  or 6,300,000 tons of water. The same amount of energy if produced by coal (at approximately 1 lb. per kw.-hr.) requires 250,000,000 tons of coal. Therefore roughly, 1 unit weight of deuterium is equivalent to  $2.5 \times 10^6$  units of weight of coal, or 1 unit weight of water is equivalent to 40 units of weight of coal. The total amount of water on earth is approximately  $1.4 \times 10^{18}$  gr. =  $1.54 \times 10^{18}$  tons. This is equivalent to  $6 \times 10^{19}$  tons of coal, an amount far exceed fossil fuel reserve, and uranium and thorium reserve combined.

### 1.2 Separation of Deuterium from Water

There is no isotope separation has been applied to obtain deuterium from water: 1) the electrolytic method, 2) distillation and 3) the chemical exchange method. Electrolysis has been applied with great success to the separation of deuterium. It was found experimentally that when an aqueous solution is electrolyzed the lighter isotope of hydrogen is evolved more rapidly than the heavier isotope, and the residue in the electrolysis cell is enriched in deuterium. In the industrial manufacture of oxygen and hydrogen, cells containing potassium hydroxide solutions are operated for long periods of time without changing the electrolyte in the cells. Water is added periodically to make up for the water electrolyzed. The residue from these cells can be used as the feed material for further purification, and the method consists in electrolyzing a large volume of such water down to a small residue. A dilute solution of sodium hydroxide from industrial cells is electrolyzed and a large amount of nickel electrodes until all but about 1% of the water has been decomposed into hydrogen and oxygen. The residue is very concentrated

is alkali and is partially neutralized by the addition of  $\text{CO}_2$ . The enriched water is then distilled off and the distillate goes to the next stage of electrolysis, where the procedure is repeated. About five to seven stages are needed to yield water highly enriched in deuterium. In the later stages, the hydrogen gas which is evolved is rich in deuterium, and it is therefore burned to form water and returned to the electrolytic cells. To obtain water with 99% deuterium, it is usually necessary to electrolyze ordinary water until it is reduced to  $10^{-4}$  of its original volume. An indication of the rate of concentration can be obtained from Table 1.1, (Taylor, Eyring and Frost, "Technique for the Electrolytic Production of  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ ", J. Chem. Phys. 1: 623, 1933); the initial electrolyte

Table 1.1

## The Concentration of Deuterium by Electrolysis

Stage	Volume of electrolyte	Density gr./cm <sup>3</sup>	% of D
I	2300 liters	0.998	0.03
II	340 "	0.999	0.5
III	52 "	1.001	2.5
IV	10 "	1.007	8
V	2 "	1.031	30
VI	420 c.c.	1.078	73
VII	82 c.c.	1.104	99

from a commercial cell and the deuterium abundance was about 0.03%.

The method of distillation for separating deuterium is based upon the fact that the normal boiling point of  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  is  $1.4^\circ\text{C}$  higher than

18

chamber, and the remaining large fraction is transmitted directly to the wall. The crucial energy production within the chamber is that part kept within the chamber. To prevent the reaction to be quenched, the heat "kept" must be equal to the heat conducted and radiated to the wall by the conventional processes.

### 3.2 Effective Energy Production in the Chamber

Let  $E_1$  be the energy of  $^3\text{He}^3$  and  $E_2$  be the energy of  $^3\text{H}^3$  in (1.1). Then if  $E$  is the total energy,

$$E_1 + E_2 = E \quad (3.1)$$

But balance of momentum requires

$$3E_1 = E_2 \quad (3.2)$$

Or

$$E_1 = \frac{1}{4}E = 0.818 \text{ Mev}$$

At 100 atm and  $10^8 \text{ K}$ , the effective energy production due to (1.1) is then  $0.5 \text{ wt./cm}^2 \text{ sec}$ .

Let  $E_3$  be the energy of  $^4\text{He}^4$  and  $E_4$  be the energy of  $\gamma$  in (1.2). The sum of  $E_3 + E_4$  is

$$E_3 + E_4 = 20.57$$

$$\sqrt{18} E_3 = \frac{E_4}{c}$$

Thus approximately

$$E_4 \approx 20.57 \text{ Mev.}$$

and

$$E_3 = \frac{1}{8} \frac{E_4^2}{c^2} = E_4 \times \frac{20.57}{8 \times 931.1} = 0.2568 \text{ Mev.}$$

Thus the importance of recoil energy of  $^4\text{He}^4$  ions are completely insignificant.



Let us take a mass absorption coefficient of  $10^3$  for  $\gamma$  rays of  $0.03$  m. for  $10^8$  K and we also, for simplicity, assume the distance is

$$\frac{1}{20000} \times 10^3 \times \frac{10^3}{10^3} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ g./cm.}^2$$

$\frac{1}{2}$  of the fast neutrons  $\sim 75 \text{ cm} \approx 7500 \text{ cm}$ . The fast neutrons are being absorbed in

$$0.03 \times 7500 \times 10^{-3} \approx 10^{-6}$$

Every time a neutron is multiplied by a factor of 10, so that the effective length of the neutron is  $10^6$  times the effective length of the neutron. The neutron is being absorbed from the edge of the core.

Let us assume each deuteron near the wall has a fast neutron rate of  $10^4$  neutrons/cm<sup>2</sup> per second. The temperature gradient is  $10^8/1000 = 10^5$  K/cm. The neutron rate is

$$10^8/1000 = 10^5 \text{ K/cm.}$$

The neutron rate is thus

$$1 = 40 \text{ ed/cm}^2 \text{ sec.}$$

The effective energy,  $f$ , neutron rate is

$$1.5 \times 10^4 = 7500 \text{ ed/cm}^2 \text{ sec.}$$

The neutron rate is a direct function of the temperature.

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## 6.5

### 第二次世界大战末期对德国航空和火箭研究的调研报告 (1945年5月)

1944年,即第二次世界大战结束前一年,美国陆军航空兵(The Army Air Force)的Henry Arnold(亨利·阿诺德)将军已把目光投向战后的一个很长时期。是年9月,他单独与Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)会晤,要von Kármán组织一个科学咨询团(Science Advisory Group),为今后20-50年美国空军的长远发展提供科学研究工作的蓝图。von Kármán很快组建了这个咨询团,并请钱学森参加这个团的核心组。1945年春,钱学森参观了美国几个有名的实验室,如RCA实验室、NACA(美国国家航空委员会)、JPL(喷气推进实验室)等,评估美国航空研究和发展的水平和趋势。1945年3月,欧洲战场上的德军全面崩溃,Arnold又向von Kármán建议,到德国去看看他们究竟在航空和火箭的研究和发展方面走得有多远,去查阅德国科学家并视察他们的实验室,搜集第一手资料,顺便考察英、法、瑞士、瑞典等欧洲国家的研究情况。4月底,钱学森等随同von Kármán飞往欧洲。在德国,钱学森查阅了德国火箭研究的最高权威von Braun(冯·布劳恩)和研究V-2火箭的著名理论家Rudolf Hermann(鲁道夫·赫尔曼)等人,视察了美军发现的德国人的秘密实验室和V-2火箭工厂,查阅了德国人有关火箭和空气动力学的秘密研究报告。5月间,钱学森写出了一系列调研报告,反映德国人在飞机、火箭、炸弹多方面的发展状况。在现存的钱学森手稿中便有他在1945年5月17-21日所写的部分报告的底稿,计有题为“Arrow-Wing (Pfeilflügel)”(箭形机翼),“Rockets”(火箭),“Gasdynamics with supersonic velocities”(超声速气体动力学),“Ramjet”(冲压发动机),“Aeropulse”(脉冲式空气喷气发动机),“Liquid explosive bombs”(液体炸药炸弹),“Installation of turbojets in an airplane”(飞机上的喷气涡轮发动机的安装问题)等7篇。这些报告乃是对

德国调查研究的结果。6月20日,钱学森结束欧洲之旅,回到华盛顿

1945年,以 von Kármán 为首的科学咨询团,为美国陆军航空兵(The Army Air Force)写了题为“Toward New Horizon”(迈向新高度)共9卷的带有展望和规划性的报告,为发展美国现代化空军提供远景发展蓝图。在这一系列报告的第3卷,钱学森以上述调研报告为基础,介绍了战时德国和瑞士在航空研究领域中的发展情况,取名为“Reports on the Recent Developments of Several Selected Fields in Germany and Switzerland”(关于德国和瑞士在某几个领域近期发展情况的报告)。

下面将分别选印作者在1945年5月所写7篇报告的部分手稿

## 6.5.1

## Arrow - Wing

## 箭形机翼

作者在1945年5月17日所写的题为“Arrow - Wing”(箭形机翼)的调研报告手稿共6页。手稿说明了箭形机翼的基本原理、战时德国研究箭形机翼最活跃的单位 and 专家以及在空气动力学方面的实验研究结果,并且指出了箭形机翼所存在的缺点。这里仅选印原稿的首页。

当时一般机翼的翼展方向是和机身垂直的。当飞机速度不断增加时,空气的可压缩效应越来越显著,这种效应可以用马赫数(即飞行速度与空气声速的比值)来表征。当马赫数达到某一数值(一般在0.74左右)时,机翼的空气动力学特性发生根本的变化,升力骤减而阻力骤增,这时的马赫数称为临界马赫数。为了避免机翼在高速飞行时的效率发生大的损失,若把机翼的形状作一改变,即把翼展的方向从垂直于机身的方向朝后方折转一个角度,而作成箭形机翼(也称后掠式机翼),可以把临界马赫数提得更高。

作者在1944年4月随Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)率领的科学咨询团飞往德国之前,曾经和他的同事们讨论过不久之前美国国家航空委员会的Robert Jones对箭形机翼所做的理论分析,认为Jones的理论有道理,但是需要取得实验结果的支持。然而当作者到达德国进行了实地考察以后,发现德国人在大战期间对箭形机翼的研究远比美国人深入。1940年, H. Ludwig所写的报告给出了有关翼展有限的箭形机翼的空气动力学特性的风洞实验结果,清楚地说明了箭形机翼在高速飞行中可以使阻力大为减小;1942年, G. Koeb所写的实验研究报告说明,粘性效应是可以忽略的,可以用理想流体的理论来估算导致失速现象的临界马赫数,等等。

在报告的最后一段,作者谈到了箭形机翼所存在的问题。由于机翼表面上的压力分布与通常直形机翼不同,气流绕过机翼时较早发生分离现象,导致飞行稳定性的降低,这一问题需要今后进一步的研究,以便做出改进。

Artemis - uia (Pfaufl. Vogel)

May 17, 1965

9. The lift The lift velocity of the aircraft is measured. The effects of  $\alpha$  quantities  
to  $a_{\text{the}}$  are more and more pronounced. It is well known that these effects  
can be measured by the simple formula called the "hook number". The hook number is  
the ratio of the lift velocity to the ground velocity. If the hook number is  $n$ ,  
~~one~~ the aerodynamic characteristics of wing are radically changed by decrease in  
lift and an increase in drag. For the conventional wings used in the present day  
aircraft the critical change occurs usually at a hook number of 0.75.

[illegible]

Le Soudan et l'Égypte

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## 6.5.2

### Rockets

#### 火箭

在作者所参加的科学咨询团随着美军进入德国向前推进的过程中，连续不断地发掘和抢救了德军撤退时隐藏或企图销毁的大量研究报告和实验装备。他们发现，德国人为了准备战争，大概从1936年开始，便大规模地展开火箭的研制工作。德国人具有非常明确的军事目的，主要是为了给在高空飞行的歼击机突然加速、为缩短飞机起飞或降落的跑道、为发射鱼雷等用途而将火箭用作动力推进装置等。

作者在1945年5月18日所写的题为“Rockets”（火箭）的调研报告手稿共有15页。在这份报告中，作者介绍了德国人所研制的固体推进剂火箭、固体-液体推进剂火箭和液体推进剂火箭等三类火箭，包括推进剂的组分和性能以及火箭的结构和性能等。这里仅选印手稿的首页。

固体推进剂已经用在德国火箭炮（artillery rockets）上，它是一种用硝化棉和二硝酸二甲醇为主要原料的混合物，被压制成多孔条状的推进剂。为了制造更轻的火箭，在降低燃烧室压力和增加燃烧时间方面作了努力，研制了一种随燃烧室压力大小而开闭的调节器，可以使周期间断性的燃烧转变为平稳连续性的燃烧。

所谓固体-液体推进剂火箭有两种类型，一种是先把固体碳压在燃烧室里，用时将氧化剂 $N_2O$ 注进去；另一种则是把氧化剂硝基过氯酸盐晶体（nitrogl perchorate  $NOClO_4 \cdot H_2O$  晶体）和碳混合后压在燃烧室里，然后将液态燃料 $NH_3$ 注进去。这类火箭的小型实验是成功的。

德国人在研制液体火箭方面，开始是用液氧加酒精作为推进剂，而后来则着重采用过氧化氢类型和硝酸苯氨类型的推进剂。在A. Busemann指导下由E. Sanger在Muden附近的Fassberg建造了一个大规模的试验装置，计划目标是研制成200 000磅的火箭，采用液氧加燃油作为推进剂。到了

1944 年，该工作改由 Grumbt 负责。一个重要进展是提出了一个冷却燃烧室的方案，实验说明燃烧室采用多孔材料，将冷却液体渗入燃烧室壁面而形成一层液膜，可起到有效的冷却作用，作者认为这一方案应当大力加以研究。





### 6.5.3

#### Gasdynamics with Supersonic Velocities

#### 超声速气体动力学

作者在1945年5月20日所写的题为“Gasdynamics with Supersonic Velocities”（超声速气体动力学）的调研报告手稿共有5页。战时德国在超声速流动方面的研究，主要集中在以下三个方面：a) 壳体和导弹的空气动力学特性；b) 与脉冲式发动机和冲压式发动机的设计有关的流动问题；以及c) 爆轰波或击波。手稿主要介绍德国人在壳体和导弹的实验和理论研究以及超声速风洞设计方面的情况。这里仅选印手稿的首页

德国人的实验规模很大，主要做打靶试验和风洞试验。在Volkenrode的Hermann Göring航空研究实验室的打靶试验风洞，长度为400米，发射端的直径为5.4米，靶端的直径为7.6米，抽真空所达到的压力为0.05大气压，相当于24公里高空的状态。风洞试验的主要目的，是考查以风洞作为测量壳体的空气动力学特性的手段是否可靠。由AVA和HAP两大实验室所做的风洞试验结果并不一致，说明风洞试验的主要困难在于，反射弓形波的存在和支架的存在引起旋涡的畸变的影响以及不同的雷诺数对壳体表面摩擦的影响。

德国人在理论研究方面，用特征线法和线性化近似满意地解决了尖头旋转体和导弹的超声速流动问题，用特征线法计算了无粘流体的绕流问题，在离开圆滑表面的附近发现有击波形成，作者认为这一研究对说明击波和边界层的相互作用极有帮助。

在超声速风洞的设计方面，德国人倾向于采用方形试验段，一方面易于避免击波的形成，另一方面也有利于模型的支撑和天平的放置。



#### 6.5.4

#### Ramjet

#### 冲压式发动机

作者在1945年5月20日所写的题为“Ramjet”（冲压式发动机）的调研报告手稿共有3页。手稿叙述了战时德国研制冲压式发动机的情况，包括为改善燃烧性能、增加推力、降低外部阻力所做的模型试验以及飞行试验两个方面。这里仅选印手稿的首页。

冲压式发动机的模型试验是在 Hermann Göring 航空研究实验室进的。随着燃料注入量的增加，净推力先是不断增大，随后则变小；而最大净推力则随飞行速度而单调增加。随飞行马赫数的增加，净推力与动压和迎风面积的乘积的比值减小，燃烧也变得非常不平稳。在超声速风洞中所做的扩压器试验说明，在发动机的正前方形成一个正击波：为了减小压力损失，在进口部分引入一个中心锥，并使之突出在发动机的前方，头部不再出现正击波而只有一个斜击波，从而提高了扩压器的效率。

德国人曾经在轰炸机的顶部安装了直径为2米的冲压式发动机，在实地飞行中发现燃烧不平稳；此外，飞行员报告说，在高速飞行中飞机所受到的推力有明显的增加。

为了改进燃烧的平稳性和提高燃烧效率，德国人对燃烧室的内部结构形式作了多种尝试，例如在燃烧室内采用分布式的多头燃烧器，让可燃物流过挡板后再行燃烧，又如将燃烧室的内部设计成具有逐级扩增的台阶，目的在于维持火焰的稳定燃烧，等等。



## 6.5.5

### Aeropulse

#### 脉动式空气喷气发动机

作者在1945年5月20日所写的题为“Aeropulse”(脉动式空气喷气发动机)的调研报告手稿共有7页。手稿叙述了德国人在研制脉动式空气喷气发动机方面的历史情况,并对他们在工程研制方面的主要经验作了一个简要总结。这里仅选印手稿的首页。

1935年, P. Schmidt 在德国空军部的领导下,开始研制脉动式空气喷气发动机。第一步是设计和试验每秒50次的点火装置。空气阀设置在发动机的前方,这种空气阀的结构形式直到1945年均未作过什么大的变动;然而当初注入燃料的系统非常复杂,效果也不好。1939或1940年,柏林的Argus Motor Company(Argus发动机公司)开始研究脉动式空气喷气发动机,最初他们采用自己设计的空气阀,结构庞大而效果也不理想,但是他们的燃料注入系统十分简单。接着,他们吸收了Schmidt设计中的优点,放弃了Schmidt的复杂的注入系统和Argus发动机公司自己的庞大的空气阀,形成了作者写作那年所见到的脉动式空气喷气发动机。

约在1941年,德国空军部的Schelp看到这种发动机的潜力,建议将其用来推进小的无人轰炸机,那时V-2火箭还没有做出来。详细的空气动力学的性能研究是在Hermann Göring航空研究实验室的2.8米的高速风洞中进行的。

手稿中对德国人的主要研究经验谈到了以下两点。1. 关于空气动力学特性:一开始研制时,发动机是不带外罩的,风洞实验说明外部阻力很大。后来在空气阀上加上外罩,阻力明显降低。为了进一步增大推力,他们认识到必须扩大空气阀的有效进口截面积,准备做进一步的系统实验。2. 关于空气增压器:德国人设想如果在把燃料——空气混合物引入发动机之后,能够再单独地把空气引入发动机,那么当混合物发生爆炸(explosion)以后,会形

成一个气体活塞而把空气柱推出去。每次爆炸所推动的空气质量便增加了，从而增加了动量，以致提高了效率。P. Schmidt的工作是以这一原理作为基础的，但据 A. Busemann 说，这方面尚未取得明显的效果。





## 6.5.6

### Liquid Explosive Bombs

#### 液体炸药炸弹

作者在 1945 年 5 月 20 日所写的 “Liquid Explosive Bombs”（液体炸药炸弹）的调研报告手稿只有 1 页。手稿叙述了战时德国人在研制液体炸药炸弹方面的试验情况。这里选印了这份手稿。

德国人在 1942 年开始研究用液体炸药制造炸弹，所用的汽油加四氧化二氮混合而成的液体炸药所释放的能量，比等重量的一般固体炸药高出 50%。为了保证安全，作为燃料的汽油和作为氧化剂的四氧化二氮分盛在两个容器内，容器之间被一个固定的空间分隔开来以保安全。当炸弹在飞机上投下以后，由压缩空气将汽油加压，使其通过许多喷管而喷入液态的四氧化二氮。经过 10 秒钟后达到完全的混合，然后在炸药接触地面时，引发普通引信而发生爆炸。

德国人的一个重要发现是，不要在四氧化二氮中混有硝酸，因为硝酸和汽油混合时，在有四氧化二氮参加的情况下，会产生足够的热量，不需要引信而自行爆炸。这一事实被用来解释试验中出现的事故。

他们做过许多次飞机投弹试验，后来又做了爆炸性能的精确测量。

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In the first part of the paper we have seen that the first step in the process of the development of the embryo is the formation of the blastoderm. This is a process which is controlled by the action of the yolk. The yolk is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo. It is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo.

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... in the first part of the paper we have seen that the first step in the process of the development of the embryo is the formation of the blastoderm. This is a process which is controlled by the action of the yolk. The yolk is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo. It is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo.

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In the second part of the paper we have seen that the second step in the process of the development of the embryo is the formation of the blastoderm. This is a process which is controlled by the action of the yolk. The yolk is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo. It is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo.

In the third part of the paper we have seen that the third step in the process of the development of the embryo is the formation of the blastoderm. This is a process which is controlled by the action of the yolk. The yolk is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo. It is a substance which is present in the egg and which is essential for the development of the embryo.

### 6.5.7

#### Installation of Turbojets in an Airplane

#### 飞机上涡轮喷气发动机的安装

作者在1945年5月21日所写的题为“Installation of Turbojets in an Airplane”（飞机上涡轮喷气发动机的安装）的调研报告手稿共有4页。手稿介绍战时德国针对涡轮喷气发动机应该安装在飞机上的什么位置这一问题所做的研究工作。这里仅选印手稿的首页。

在飞机上安装一般的发动机和推进系统，总是想找一个最优位置，尽量减小因为他们和机身互相干涉而造成阻力的增加，也尽量避免对起控制作用的翼面产生不良影响。由于涡轮喷气发动机喷出的射流具有高的速度和温度，对飞机的其他部件的影响相当独特，于是安装问题成为涡轮喷气发动机设计中的一个最为重要的问题。

研究安装问题，风洞试验是最为方便的方法。德国人的大多数试验是在哥廷根空气动力学实验室[Aerodynamische Versuchstalt Göttingen (AVV)]进行的。他们选择的模拟方案是：采用电动机带动风扇，压缩进入发动机模型的空气，再燃烧酒精对压缩气流加热，最后排出模型。因为只要求中等的排气速度，只需用单级风扇，便可得到平稳的燃烧。

首先要问燃烧加热是否必要？如果通过涡轮喷气发动机的空气动力学特性是关键所在，那么加热不是必要的。但是，由于冷的射流和热的射流的扩展过程不同，包括射流的尾涡（诸如尾部的表面特征）在内的空气动力学特性的研究，只有在热射流试验中才能精确地进行。

空气动力学特性试验的内容包括发动机本身的特性，如升力、力矩和推力等，以及发动机和机翼的干涉阻力。在试验中，A. Busemann指出了几个有趣的事实。他说，发动机喷出的射流把周围大约8倍射流直径范围内的空气连续地卷混在一起，所造成的具有一定频率的涡旋给尾翼的颤振带来麻烦。

德国人也对发动机进口的设计方案下了功夫，经过试验研究，总压头的损失减小到10%。

SECRET

INSTALLATION OF TURBINES IN AN AIRPLANE

(H. S. Tsien)

May 21, 1945

2. Introduction.

The installation problem of the conventional engine and propeller propulsive system consists of finding the optimum location of the power plant so that the increase in drag due to interference will be a minimum and no undesirable influence will be exerted on the control surfaces. Of course the same problems also exist in the case of turbjet airplanes, due to the high velocity of the jet and the high temperature of the exhaust gas, the influence on other parts of the airplane is even stronger than in the case of the conventional power plane. Therefore the installation problem is one of the most important problems in jet airplane design.

II. Simulated Models of Turbines for Wind Tunnel Testing.

To study such installation problems, wind tunnel testing is the most convenient method. Most of the study done in Germany was made at the staff at the aerodynamische Versuchsanstalt Göttingen (AVA). The first thing to be determined is, of course, the best way of simulating the turbines in model tests. The AVA (Ref.1) simulated the turbjets by a combination of electric motor driven fan and heat addition by burning alcohol. The air entering the model duct was compressed by an axial fan, then the compressed air was heated by burning with alcohol and discharged out of the duct. The fan in the duct was driven by an electric motor. Since only moderate discharge velocity was required due to low wind tunnel velocity compared with flight velocity, the fan was of single stage. Alcohol was chosen as the fuel for smooth combustion.

The first question to be settled was whether the heat addition by burning is absolutely necessary. Of course the answer is conditioned by the particular aerodynamic characteristics to be studied. If the flow characteristics around the turbjet is the essential point, then it was found that heat addition is not necessary. Accurate enough results can be obtained if one uses the momentum charges from inlet to outlet of the duct model for both cold jet and hot jet. The later Göttingen tests were generally made with cold jets. However, due to the difference in the spreading of cold jets and of hot jets, studies on the aerodynamic characteristics involving the wake of the jet (such as tail surface characteristics) can only be accurately made with a hot jet.

If the momentum increases of the cold jet and the hot jet are made to be equal, the mass flows will not be the same. This situation can be remedied by

- (a) proportionally decreasing the exit area of the cold model so that same momentum charge and mass flow will be the same.
- (b) introducing a gas of lighter density into the duct to reduce the density of the exhaust from the cold model.

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## 6.6

### 为著名报告《Toward New Horizon》 (迈向新高度)所写的材料

1945年以Theodore von Kármán(冯·卡门)为首的科学咨询团为美国陆军航空兵(The Army Air Force)完成了题为《Toward New Horizon》(迈向新高度)共9卷的带有展望和规划性的报告,为二次大战结束以后美国空军的现代化建设提供了远景发展蓝图。钱学森为《Toward New Horizon》提供了他自己的观点和思想。他在1945年5月所写的对德考察的调研报告的基础上,总结了欧洲国家的研究经验,并且结合战时美国的研究情况,特别是他和他的同事们在加州理工学院和喷气推进实验室所做的工作,在《Toward New Horizon》这一研究报告的第3、4、6、7和8卷以及技术情报附录中,钱学森详细地论述了有关高速空气动力学、脉冲式空气喷气发动机、冲压发动机、火箭、超声速箭形翼导弹以及核能作为飞行动力的可能性等方面的研究概况、存在问题以及发展前景。

保留的手稿中有关于高速空气动力学、脉冲喷气发动机和火箭等方面的打字稿,下面分别选印其中的一部分。

### 6.6.1

## High Speed Aerodynamics

### 高速空气动力学

这份题为“High Speed Aerodynamics”(高速空气动力学)的报告的打字稿共有28页,报告分成六节,每节的标题分别是:Ⅰ.空气动力学中空气可压缩性的影响;Ⅱ.维持层流边界层以减小阻力;Ⅲ.击波以及击波和边界层的相互作用;Ⅳ.临界飞行马赫数的控制;Ⅴ.从推进动力装置喷出的射流对飞机周围流动的影响;Ⅵ.跨声速和超声速飞机的设计问题。这里仅选印打字稿的首页。

为了实现跨声速和超声速飞行,必须克服因飞行速度增大而引出的困难,其中之一便是所谓“声障”,这份报告集中讨论与“声障”有关的空气动力学问题,指出了今后研究的方向。

当飞机的飞行速度不断提高到接近空气中的声速时,发生阻力骤增升力骤减以及压力中心后移,造成飞行稳定性恶化的现象。为了减小阻力,针对阻力的两个来源,即摩擦阻力和压差阻力,作者分别建议研究以下两个方案:(1)建议研究层流翼型。可以在翼面上开槽以便将边界层中一部分气流吸入槽内从而减小阻力;(2)建议研究后掠翼型,可以提高临界飞行马赫数的数值,力求避免在流场中出现击波。

报告还讨论了击波和边界层的相互作用,从喷气推进装置喷出的高速高温射流对于绕过飞行体的主流所产生的影响,以及控制面(如阻流板(spoilers)、铰折面(hinged surface)等)的设计等问题。

解决上述问题不仅理论计算有困难,风洞试验也有困难,报告中作者分析了风洞的试验段的壁面对飞行体模型的干扰作用、机翼与机身的相互干扰等难题,实际上这些问题即使在今天看来也是我们所熟知的棘手课题。

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~~TOP SECRET~~

(Draft of Section A of Part III of the Final Report)

~~TOP SECRET~~

1. The Effect of Compressibility of Air in Aerodynamics

When a body moves through the atmosphere, the effect of its motion on the surrounding air can be considered as that caused by a disturbance. Since any disturbance transmits with the velocity of sound which itself is nothing but a series of small disturbances, the signal for the motion of the body is also propagated throughout the medium with the velocity of sound. If the body moves very slowly, then in the time scale of the motion of the body, the signal velocity is practically infinitely large. In other words, the disturbance is felt almost "instantly" (referred to the time scale of the motion of the body). This means that the fluid medium, the air, can be considered as incompressible and hence no appreciable, elastic adjustment is present to take up the time of propagation. Therefore for slow motion the air can be considered as incompressible and this forms the basis of all classical aerodynamics.

As the speed of motion of the body is increased, the time of propagation necessary for the disturbances or signals can no longer be neglected, i.e., the elasticity or the compressibility of the air must be taken into account. Here it is immediately clear that the measure of the effect of compressibility is the ratio of the speed of body and the velocity of sound in the fluid, i.e., the Mach number. In other words, if the Mach number is small, the air can be considered

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## 6.6.2

### Aeropulse

#### 脉冲式空气喷气发动机

这份题为“*Aeropulse*”(脉冲式空气喷气发动机)的报告的打字稿共有14页,报告分成四节,每节的标题分别是:Ⅰ.脉冲式空气喷气发动机的现状;Ⅱ.对现有脉冲式空气喷气发动机形式的可能改进;Ⅲ.无阀型脉冲式空气喷气发动机;Ⅳ.结语。这里仅选印打字稿的首页。

这份报告在说明了脉冲式空气喷气发动机的简单原理之后,介绍了德国人在第二次世界大战期间,把这类发动机首先应用在飞弹上的主要性能,包括为提供单位推力在单位时间内所消耗的燃料量(简称比耗,以 $\text{lb/hr/lb}$ 为单位)、脉冲频率和推力等参数值、以及这些参数随飞行马赫数的变化情况。但是德国人没有提供马赫数超过0.6的高速飞行的性能,于是作者对高速情况下的发动机性能作了简化分析和计算,估算出德国发动机的比耗不会低于 $3 \text{ lb/hr/lb}$ ;用很简单的风琴管的振动模型近似估算了脉冲频率;在德国人给出的低速实验数据的基础上进行外推,导出了在超声速情况下推力系数几乎不随飞行马赫数变化的结论。

作者指出,可以在增加推力、降低燃料比耗方面进行改进,为此提出了一些具体的改进方案,如加大空气流进燃烧室的有效截面,在空气——燃料混合物爆炸以后再将空气单独引入发动机,把发动机装入机身内部等。这就要求研究和开发性能更好的材料和结构形式,使发动机更轻和更有效。作者提出了一个称之为“*Valveless Aeropulse*”的崭新的无阀型脉冲式空气喷气发动机的方案。他认为在高速飞行时,高速空气流所具有的惯性足以起到阀门的作用而没有必要采用机械阀,经过分析,相信无阀型发动机的推力系数可以比德国人的带有弹簧阀和文托里管的有阀型发动机的推力系数提高40%。

为了实现上述改进,需要展开进一步的研究,特别是实验研究。作者提出必须要有一个试验段足够大的超声速风洞,在里面可以做带有燃烧的完整的发动机模型试验,考察发动机的外部和内部的强烈脉冲流动的规律,进行静态试验或只是空气流经发动机的试验是不可靠的。



SECRET

AEROPLANE

(Draft of Art. 7, Section C, Part III)

*Heinrich*I. The Present Status of Aeroplane

The German aeroplane and the American copy of it for the flying bombs is the first successful realization of this type of power plant. The general dimensions are given in Fig. 1. The air is sucked into the combustion chamber by the vacuum created by exhaust of the previous cycle. The intake air passes the venturi where gasoline is continuously injected. The explosion of the air fuel mixture raises the pressure in the combustion chamber to a high level and closes the spring valve at the intake. The gas is thus forced to expand through the exhaust duct and discharged at high speed. This gives the propelling impulse. At the end of discharge, the inertia of the gas will create a vacuum in the combustion chamber and the engine is ready to start a new cycle again. The pressure in the combustion chamber is controlled by the rate of fuel injected and this in turn controls the discharge velocity of the gas and thus the propulsive thrust. To start the engine, a carefully adjusted amount of fuel is sprayed into the cold combustion chamber so as to create a mixture of correct ratio around the spark plug. The spark plug ignites the mixture and the resultant strong explosion starts the cycle. The flow in the combustion chamber and the discharge duct is thus a pulsating one with very large amplitude as shown by Figs. 2 and 3.

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### 6.6.3

#### Rockets

#### 火箭

这份题为“Rockets”(火箭)的报告的打字稿共有28页,报告分成四节,每节的标题分别是:Ⅰ.火箭的类型和目前的应用;Ⅱ.固体推进剂火箭;Ⅲ.液体推进剂火箭;Ⅳ.结语。这里仅选印打字稿的首页。

报告一开始说明了固体推进剂火箭和液体推进剂火箭两类火箭的工作特性和用途。一般说来,固体火箭适合应用于工作持续时间短的情况,而液体火箭则适用于长时间的情况。

接着,报告分别讨论了固体火箭和液体火箭的发展现状,并提出了可能改进的方案。

在固体推进剂火箭部分,首先讨论了推进剂的密度、温度敏感性、燃烧表面积以及燃烧速率定律中的指数 $n$ 等对火箭性能的影响。作者分析指出:密度较大的推进剂会使发动机较轻;若温度敏感性较高,发动机的正常工作温度范围将受限制;发动机中推进剂装得很满的受限燃烧可给出高比冲;小的指数 $n$ 会有好的重复性和可靠性等。然后,作者论述了改进设计以求达到减轻发动机重量和提高排气速度方面的重要性,指出这和改进推进剂性能(如热值)所得到的好处同等重要。作者详细讨论了为减轻重量可能采取的措施,包括采用:燃烧压力低而燃烧平稳的、燃烧速率指数小、温度敏感性低的推进剂,燃烧速率高的推进剂进行受限燃烧以及其他措施。作者认为,研究和实现这些措施将会大大增加固体推进剂火箭的实用性。

在液体推进剂火箭部分,作者讨论了三方面的问题,即火箭的设计原则和推进剂的选择、推进剂的供给系统以及发动机的构造和设计。液体火箭主要应用于大型飞机的加速起飞和大型导弹的推进。前者的设计准则要求火箭工作可靠、使用简便以及有重复使用的长寿命;而后者则要求比冲

高、设计简单、操作容易以及生产成本低。作者给出了几种推进剂的性能分析指出：要研制能瞬时点火并适用于温度范围较广的推进剂，要注意推进剂密度与飞行体体积和所受阻力的关系以及采用推进剂作为燃烧室的冷却剂所要求的条件等。作者分析比较了各种推进剂供给系统，认为压缩气体系统适用于工作时间短而推力大的火箭，涡轮泵系统适用于工作时间长的火箭，至于将来要大量使用的导弹武器，气体发生器系统则更为可取，因为它结构简单、优点很多，但要考虑生产成本。作者建议今后要大力研究后面两种供给系统。作者又论述了四种驱动泵的动力系统的方案（即：与辅助发动机或与飞机主要动力装置相连；使用由推进剂驱动的另一气体涡轮；使用旋转式火箭发动机；以及风车等）的优缺点，指出了各自适合的用途以及需要进一步研究的问题。关于发动机的构造和设计，作者提出了两个主要问题，一是燃烧室的形状应能使注入的推进剂进行最有效的燃烧，为此今后需要深入研究燃烧室内的流动图案；另一是对长时间工作的发动机的冷却要做到既有效又经济。他提到了两种冷却方案，一是用推进剂流过燃烧室和喷管的外套实现对流冷却，另一是将推进剂直接注入燃烧室内壁形成液膜，或通过多孔材料制成的燃烧室壁而注入燃烧室实现蒸发冷却，对此今后需要进行深入的比较研究。

最后，作者作了扼要的总结，认为：固体推进剂火箭今后的发展更多地依赖于推进剂性能的改善；而液体推进剂火箭则更多地依赖于机械设计的研究。今后为了设计用于重型导弹的高效大型火箭，特别需要在燃烧、冷却、输送用泵等问题上开展强有力的工作。

这份报告自始至终体现了作者对待一个大型工程研究项目的理论与实际紧密结合的风格，既注意深入的理论分析，指出关键性的研究课题，又重视与设计和制造以及生产经济性等有关的综合性很强的实际问题，并提出可能改进的措施。

## ROCKETS

(Draft of Art. 9 of Section C of Part III)

*Howard T. ...*

### I. Types of Rockets and Their Present Applications

The two main types of rockets are the solid propellant type and the liquid propellant type. The solid propellant rockets are now used or suggested to be used for propelling the artillery rockets, for the assisted take-off of aircraft, for the launching of flying bombs and missiles, and for the propulsion of large missiles. The liquid propellant rockets are used for the assisted take-off and for the propulsion of very large missiles and airplanes. While there is no essential difference in the operating characteristics of these two types of rockets and thus for any new application the possibility of both types should be investigated, there are certain facts which should be kept in mind. The solid propellant rocket contains all the propellant in the high pressure combustion chamber or the motor. Thus if the duration of the operation is long, the chamber volume becomes very large and the weight of the chamber will be very large. Therefore, for very long durations, i.e., durations in excess of 30 or 40 seconds, the weight of a solid propellant rocket is heavier than that of a liquid propellant rocket. However, this line of demarcation also depends upon the thrust of the rocket. The reason for this variation is that for the liquid propellant rocket the unit weight is a function of the thrust. Larger thrust makes the unit weight smaller, especially in the case of pump fed rockets. The above value of 30 to 40 seconds corresponds to a thrust of approximately 4000 lbs. In other words, for durations in excess of 30

## 6.7

### 课程讲义和大纲

#### 6.7.1

#### High Temperature Design

#### 高温设计

1949~1950年,钱学森与P. E. Duwez合作为美国加州理工学院喷气推进中心的研究生开设了“High Temperature Design”(高温设计)一课,课程编号为JP 210。课程内容分为热应力和高温材料两大部分,由作者负责第一部分,而Duwez负责第二部分。这里选印讲义手稿中第1和第21两页,以及该门课程的期终考题。

第二次世界大战结束后,喷气推进技术发展很快,已经进入实用阶段。发动机和飞行体的很多部件都在高温下工作。进行设计时应当充分利用材料在高温下的极限性能,所以研究和说明材料所经受的工作条件就变得很重要,其中的一个环节就是要决定材料在随时间变化的加热情况下所承受的热应力的变化,在这个基础上选用合适的材料并制定合理的设计方案。讲授这门课程的目的就是要给出求解这类热应力问题的方法。

本课程的第一部分的内容便是介绍求解热应力的方法。求解分为两步:第一步在给定外界对物体的加热条件下,求解一个物体内部的热传导问题,计算出物体在每一时刻的温度分布;第二步在已知温度分布的基础上,考虑到物体的热胀冷缩的效应与变形和受力之间的关系,计算物体在每一时刻的热应力分布。课程的第二部分则提供材料在高温下的性质,包括弹性、塑性、蠕变、延迟性、疲劳、冲击热阻等,也介绍了一种先进的高温材料——钛的高温特性。

400 pages

IP 210

# High Temperature Design Problems

## Part I Thermal Stress

### Introduction

As the limits of maximum performance of material at high temperatures are approached in jet propulsion designs, it becomes important to understand and to be able to specify the working conditions the materials are subjected to. One very important phase of this study is the determination of thermal stresses in the material under study, heating. For instance, for ceramic materials, we usually speak of the "thermal shock resistance," a property which indicates the merit or the degree of sudden heating the material can stand without fracture. Clearly this is a thermal stress problem. We shall not be able to specify the desired material until the thermal shock resistance is expressed in terms of some basic material properties such as Young's modulus, Poisson's ratio, heat conductivity, specific heat and the coefficient of thermal expansion. To give a clue for solution of such problems is the purpose of the present series of lectures.

The analysis of thermal stress is divided into two steps:

1) The determination of temperature distribution in the material at different times is dealt with the specified boundary conditions and initial conditions. Boundary conditions are the conditions of heat flux at the boundaries of the material. Initial conditions are

It is actually to note that the temperature at the center of the disc is not zero (or the temperature at center is not the cooling rate temperature) but higher.

### Exercise 2

Take  $f = 0.6$  Btu  $^{\circ}\text{F}^{-1} \text{in}^2 \text{hr}^{-1}$ , and  
 $b = 1.6$  inches  
 $R = 10.5$  inches

and values for  $k$  and  $h$  from Exercise 1 compute the temperature distribution in the disc.

P. 21

### Thermal Stress

The theory of elasticity of a solid is based upon the following assumptions:

a) The material is isotropic so that the relation between stress and strain is independent of the coordinate system in which it is described (coordinate transformation).

b) The stress-strain relation is linear and no permanent strain exists.

The first assumption is based upon the fact that although the individual crystals of the material are not isotropic, the aggregate of small crystals in random orientation is isotropic of the volume considered contains many <sup>many</sup> crystals. The second assumption is based upon small strains and small strains so that no plastic deformation occurs.

Besides these two assumptions, we add, of course, the assumption of free equilibrium and the hypothesis of continuum in that no material is created nor destroyed.

CONTINUUM

June 1, 1950

FINAL EXAMINATION ON JP 210

- (1) A uniform thin rod of length  $l$  and cross-section  $A$  is heated to a non-uniform temperature (non-uniform along the rod, but can be considered as uniform in each cross-section) and then after the heating has stopped the temperature at a number of stations along the rod are measured at several time intervals. Consider the rod to be thermally insulated after the heating and consider the heat capacity of the material of the rod to be known, suggest a practical method of analyzing the temperature measurements to obtain the heat conduction coefficient  $k$ .
- (2) Consider a thin-walled long cylinder of radius  $R$  and thickness  $b$ , closed at ends and subjected to internal pressure  $p$  and a heat flux density  $q$  from inside to outside. Steady temperature distribution in the wall is maintained by cooling the outside surface to room temperature. Assume that the material behaves as an elastic body with Young's modulus  $E$  and Poisson's ratio  $\nu$ . The tensile strength of the material is  $\sigma^*$ , and the coefficient of thermal conductivity  $k$ , the linear thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$ .
- Compute the stress distribution in the cylinder, and the maximum stress. Show that with other variables held constant, there is an optimum value for the thickness  $b$  such that the maximum stress is the lowest. Then show that for a given material, there is a maximum value of the product  $qRp$  beyond which no design is possible. Determine this critical ( $qRp$ ) in terms of the material properties listed above. Discuss the comparative merit of the different classes of material for this application.



## 6.7.2

## The P - L - K Method

## PLK 方法

1954 年, 作者在美国加州理工学院开设了“PLK 方法”的系列讲座, 撰写了题为“The P(oincare)-L(ighthill)-K(uo) Method”的讲义。讲义手稿共有 82 页, 内容分为引言、常微分方程、双曲型偏微分方程以及椭圆型偏微分方程等四章, 最后一页是志谢页。这里选印讲义手稿中引言一章中的前 3 页及志谢页。

在本世纪的 40-50 年代, 人们为实现高速飞行而致力于突破“声障”的研究。1949 年, 作者离开美国麻省理工学院, 重返加州理工学院任教。在他驱车西行途中, 到康乃尔大学与挚友郭永怀相聚, 得知郭永怀已对跨声速气体动力学提出了一个新课题, 即击波与边界层的相互作用问题。这一问题极难, 不仅在于微分方程的非线性, 而且因为边界层的前缘有奇点, 采用线性化的近似方法或者一般的摄动法都不能解决问题。郭永怀独辟蹊径, 把 Prandtl (普朗特) 的边界层理论和 Lighthill (莱特希尔) 的变形坐标法结合起来, 形成了一种独特的奇异摄动法, 消除了边界层前缘的奇异性, 得到了一致有效的流场解。在这一问题上取得了重大成果。作者认为郭永怀之所以取得成功是他治学严谨, 有见识、有胆量, 敢于和善于攻坚的结果。到了 1953 年冬, 作者再次见到了来加州理工学院讲学的郭永怀, 有机会向他的老友学习奇异摄动法。此后, 作者对这一方法进行了系统的整理和研究, 在 1954 年的三四月间写出了本手稿, 把这一方法命名为“P(oincare)-L(ighthill)-K(uo) 方法”, 其中第三个字母 K(uo) 便是老友的姓——郭, 我们可以透过这一命名体会到作者和他的挚友之间的亲密的关系。手稿不仅深入浅出地、出色地阐述了这一方法, 宣传了这一方法的实质和应用, 而且将这一方法推广到求解某些具有奇点的椭圆型偏微分方程的问题。同年, 作者为研究生讲授了“PLK 方法”一课; 次年, 即 1955 年作者在《Advances in Applied Mechanics》(应用力学进展) 的第

4 卷上发表了同名文章，对奇异摄动法的推广应用与后来的发展起到了重要的推动和促进作用。时至今日，奇异摄动法仍然是我们求解非线性方程的一个现实而有力的解析手段。

1.1.1  
1.1.1.1

1.1

## The P.L.K. Lecture

### Chapter I

#### Introduction

#### 1.1 Historical Development

In the famous work, "Les méthodes nouvelles de la mécanique céleste" (1899) (Chapter III), H. Poincaré devised a method for finding the periodic solution of a system of first order equation,

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = X_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \alpha) \quad i=1, \dots, n \quad (1.1)$$

where  $t$  is the time variable and  $\alpha$  is a small parameter. The equations with  $\alpha=0$  are particularly simple and a periodic solution with period  $T^0$  can be easily found. The essence of the method is the expansion of the solution in the parameter  $\alpha$ , not only the variable  $x_i$

$$x_i = x_i^0 + \alpha x_i^1 + \alpha^2 x_i^2 + \dots \quad (1.2)$$

but also the period  $T$ ,

$$T = T^0 + \alpha T^1 + \alpha^2 T^2 + \dots \quad (1.3)$$

At first glance, this method has found many applications in the study of non-linear oscillations because the same equations as Eq. (1.1) prevail. However, for many, early success was excessive and the principle of this method was ignored, and the full development of Poincaré's invention was overlooked.

On Jan. 19, 1949, H. J. Goldstein gave a lecture before the London Mathematical Society on "A technique for studying

approximate solutions to physical problems uniformly valid" which introduced a very important extension of Poincaré's method. Lindblith's objective is to improve the well-known method of perturbation for calculating the approximate solution of a physical problem. Such perturbation method is based upon the concept of expanding the exact solution in a power series in the small parameter  $\alpha$ , the zero order solution being independent of  $\alpha$ , the first order solution proportional to  $\alpha$ , etc. In many practical problems, however, the zero order solution may contain a singularity at a point or a line within the domain of interest. Then a ~~singularity~~ singularity will appear at the same location again in the higher order solutions, but worse, the singularity will become progressively more severe as the order of the solution increases. Thus the power series expansion in  $\alpha$  breaks down near such singularities. Lindblith's method is designed to eliminate such difficulties and to render the expansion uniformly valid over the whole domain. All this is accomplished by expanding the independent variables or coordinates also in power series of the parameter  $\alpha$ . For instance, if the coordinates are  $x, y$  and the variable is  $u$ , then

$$u = u^{(0)}(\xi, \eta) + \alpha u^{(1)}(\xi, \eta) + \alpha^2 u^{(2)}(\xi, \eta) + \dots \quad (11.3)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x &= \xi + \alpha x^{(1)}(\xi, \eta) + \alpha^2 x^{(2)}(\xi, \eta) + \dots \\ y &= \eta + \alpha y^{(1)}(\xi, \eta) + \alpha^2 y^{(2)}(\xi, \eta) + \dots \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (11.4)$$

It is found that  $u^{(0)}(\xi, \eta)$  is simply the zeroth order solution of the classical perturbation method with  $\xi, \eta$  replacing  $x, y$ . If we neglect the higher order terms in  $u$  of Eq. (11.3), then the

approximate solution is simply in a lower order perturbation solution since the coordinates stretched or distorted by the transformation equation (1.4). In many practical applications, this is really not that significant. The stretching of coordinates serves the purpose of an approximation so such a defect that the result is merely that of being a correction.

Lighthill applied the method to problems involving partial differential equations where the perturbation solution is obtained from a reduced <sup>linear</sup> equation of equal order as the exact equation. If H. Kuo (1952) also noted that it is possible to obtain an order reduction to problems where the perturbation equation is an equation of lower order than the exact equation, as in the case of the boundary layer theory. Kuo also used in the case of two-dimensional problems involving questions of regions of solution with different coordinate derivatives.

It is then appropriate to call this very particular method a special case of the PLK method.

### 1.2 Simple Example

To illustrate the principle of PLK method, let us consider the following first order ordinary differential equation.

$$(X + \alpha u) \frac{du}{dx} + u = 0 \quad (1.5)$$

By dividing the equation with  $du/dx$ , we have

$$u \frac{dx}{du} + X = -\alpha u$$

Or

$$\frac{d}{du}(Xu) = -\alpha u \quad (1.6)$$

Acknowledgment

The author of these Notes wishes to thank his colleagues for encouragement and helpful discussion during the course of a series of seminars on the title subject during the spring of 1954. In particular to Professor A. Erdelyi, the author is deeply indebted for his many kind critical comments on mathematical matters, and for his generosity in contributing the appendix to Chapter II. To Professor G. H. Kuo, Graduate School of Aeronautical Engineering, Cornell University, the author wishes to express his gratitude for initial introduction to this subject and for many enlightening conversations on the problem of supersonic boundary layer flow.

J. S. Train  
April, 1954

### 6.7.3

“ Aerodynamics ( 空气动力学 ) ” 、 “ Rockets ( 火箭 ) ” 、 “ Aeronautics Seminar ( 航空学专题讨论 ) ” 等课程的课程提纲或说明大纲

在作者的手稿中，有一部分是作者为学生们讲授“空气动力学”等课程所写的讲稿。为了节省本选集的篇幅，在此仅选印两页课程提纲的打字稿以示梗概。一份是“空气动力学”一课的提纲，内容涉及到跨声速、超声速和高超声速的可压缩性流体动力学以及稀薄气体动力学；另一份是作者预见到今后航空和火箭技术飞速发展的需要，建议为航空工程系的学生开设“火箭”课和“航空学专题讨论”课的说明大纲。上述文稿的完成时间不详。

### Course Descriptions

16.051 Aerodynamics - Compressible Fluids, I (A). Characteristic parameters for flow of compressible fluids. One-dimensional flow—Laval nozzle. Shock wave; change of states across a shock wave, formation of shock wave and its thickness. Basic equations for two and three dimensional flow of non-viscous compressible fluid, Kelvin's theorem, Helmholtz's theorem. Two-dimensional subsonic flows: Joukowski-theodig method, Glauert-Prandtl method, Kármán-Tsien method.—Velocity and pressure correction formulae. Exact solutions of two-dimensional flow, lifting line, critical Mach number. Transonic flows and Kármán transonic similarity law. Two-dimensional supersonic flows: the method of characteristics, Lighthill's theory for thin supersonic airfoils.

16.052 Aerodynamics - Compressible Fluids, II (A). Linearized theory for three-dimensional subsonic flows; axially symmetric bodies, velocity and pressure correction formulae; induced velocity of a vortex and extended Prandtl lifting line theory for wings of large aspect ratio. Transonic flows over axially symmetric bodies—Kármán similarity law. Linearized theory for supersonic wings of finite span. Method of source and doublet distribution, drag and lift of symmetrical rectangular wings, drag and lift of symmetrical delta-wings. Hypersonic flows—its characteristics and the hypersonic similarity law. Basic equations of viscous compressible flow; phenomenological derivation and its justification by kinetic theory of non-uniform gases.—Superaerodynamics. Boundary layer in compressible flow and its interaction with shock wave.



Proposed Courses in Aeronautical Engineering

16.57 Rocket (A). Principles of operation of rockets. Combustion and thermodynamical equilibrium. Solid rocket propellants. Fundamentals of solid propellant rockets and its design. Liquid rocket propellants. Liquid propellant rocket and its design. Rocket trajectory, principles of its calculation. Long range rockets, multi-step rockets.

Prerequisite	16.44
Year	0(A), elective
Term	1st
Lecture Hours	3 per week
Preparation Hours	6 per week
Instructor	Tsien

16.61 Aeronautics Seminar (A). Weekly two hour seminar given by the staff and the graduate students to discuss current aeronautical problems. Recommended for all graduate students in aeronautical engineering.

Prerequisite	Graduate standing
Year	G(A)
Term	1st or 2nd
Lecture hours	2 per week
Preparation	2 per week
Instructor in Charge	Tsien

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